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ABSTRACT

GRADES OR AGES: Secondary grades. SUBJECT MATTER: Reading. ORGANIZATION AND PHYSICAL APPEARANCE: The guide is divided into ten chapters and several appendixes, each of which is straight text interspersed with photographs and illustrations. It is offset printed and perfect-bound with a paper cover. OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES: The first three chapters outline a philosophy of reading instruction and develop related objectives. Five chapters suggest general types of activities, with some specific examples, for basic reading skills and reading in the content areas. These chapters also present suggestions for planning a comprehensive program, including instructional and organizational practices, responsibilities of personnel, and student motivation. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: One chapter presents guidelines for selecting, developing, and using instructional materials. Appendixes contain extensive lists of materials, both print and non-print. STUDENT ASSESSMENT: One chapter gives general guidelines for student evaluation, including methods of using standardized tests and ways to evaluate the disadvantaged. Appendixes contain samples of several reading tests and questionnaires and an extensive list of standardized tests and other evaluation materials. (RT)

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TEACHING READING
IN
SOUTH CAROLINA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Curriculum Planning Guide

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State Department of Education
Dr. Cyril B. Busbee, State Superintendent
Columbia, South Carolina

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FOREWORD

Learning to read efficiently and effectively is a concern of the State Department of Education for *all* students enrolled in the public schools of South Carolina. Accordingly, this guide has been developed to assist reading and subject area teachers, supervisors, and administrators in planning and implementing reading programs in every secondary school in the state.

Secondary teachers in every subject area have been aware for many years that students who are not skillful readers are seriously handicapped in learning basic facts and concepts, developing new understandings and appreciations, acquiring improved attitudes, and learning to think critically.

All too frequently large numbers of secondary students have failed because of their inability to read well enough to meet the demands of and benefit from improved and expanded academic and vocational curricular offerings. Moreover, inadequate reading abilities have been a constant hindrance to the personal growth and academic achievement of many potentially capable and even bright secondary students.

As a result of the increased holding power of secondary schools, enrollments have expanded in recent years. Many potential dropouts are remaining in school, and the range of reading achievement in almost any typical secondary classroom in the state now spans several grade levels.

In recent years, there has been an extended effort in South Carolina to educate every secondary student to his highest level of ability or expectancy. All of these conditions make clear the increasing need for further training in reading at the secondary level.

Every secondary school is encouraged to include in the curriculum developmental and remedial reading courses staffed by trained reading teachers. Secondary schools are encouraged to provide in-service education programs based on this guide, as secondary teachers in every subject area can be trained to help their students develop reading competencies.

Each subject area teacher has a unique opportunity to help students learn to read and study the content of his specialized subject area while he teaches the body of knowledge inherent in that subject. The reading abilities of secondary students will be determined largely by the extent to which all secondary teachers plan effective instruction that incorporates an emphasis on essential reading and study skills.

This guide is an effort to provide practical ideas and useful suggestions for reading and subject area teachers who work in the secondary school and for administrators and supervisors who assist classroom teachers in improving the quality of instructional experiences for maturing boys and girls. If this publication is studied and many of the suggestions are implemented, reading instruction will become an increasingly important component of a high-quality secondary school curriculum and improvement in reading for many students will result.

Dr. Cyril B. Busbee
State Superintendent of Education

INTRODUCTION

During the past several years, many secondary schools in South Carolina have sought assistance in planning and implementing reading programs. Often these schools found few resources available to help them in their planning.

In 1965 the South Carolina Education Association TEPS Reading Course Committee published a guide to *The Teaching of High School Reading.* This guide provided much needed assistance, especially in planning in-service programs in secondary reading.

Since its publication, secondary school administrators have asked repeatedly for consultative assistance from the State Department of Education. Some school districts have employed full-time reading supervisors to provide leadership in organizing and instituting secondary programs; other districts have been unable to secure trained supervisors.

Although all secondary teachers are now encouraged to take at least one course in reading instruction, few are adequately prepared to teach reading in the junior and senior high schools. Fully trained and certified secondary reading teachers continue to be scarce in South Carolina. Few reading texts are available to provide guidance and direction for these teachers.

The purpose of this guide is to assist secondary reading and subject area teachers, supervisors, and administrators in planning, implementing, and evaluating reading programs that will meet the varying needs of students today. It provides a framework for planning either a comprehensive all-school developmental reading program or a compromise reading program.

The guide stresses the responsibilities that all secondary teachers have in improving the reading skills and abilities of their students who must read widely in various textbooks and other materials.

This guide is not intended as a course of study nor a syllabus to direct the entire efforts of a school or school district in planning and implementing a secondary reading program. It is a resource tool to be used to initiate curriculum study, development, and improvement in reading. Using this guide, secondary school and district personnel may wish to develop more refined guidelines for programs adapted to local conditions and needs. The guide should be useful in part or in its entirety as schools and school districts work toward improving the reading abilities, interests, and habits of secondary students.

Dr. W. Bruce Crowley, *Director*
Office of General Education

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The preparation of this guide enlisted the cooperative assistance of many teachers, principals, supervisors, guidance counselors, librarians, and an assistant superintendent. The Secondary Reading Curriculum Committee headed by Mr. Mahaffey included Mrs. Olive C. Bennett, Reading Consultant, Brookland-Cayce Schools, Cayce; Mrs. Helen L. Callison, Librarian, Airport High School, West Columbia; Mrs. Jennye E. Cureton, Bryson High School, Fountain Inn; Miss Nancy Jane Day, Supervisor of Library Services, State Department of Education, Columbia; Mrs. Mary P. Easterling, Hand Junior High School, Columbia; Joe E. Gentry, Assistant Superintendent, Spartanburg School District Five, Lyman; Mrs. Lenora R. Granade, The School District of Greenville County Reading Center, Greenville; Mrs. Clelia D. Hendrix, former Supervisor of Reading and English, now Director of Public Information, The School District of Greenville County, Greenville; Mrs. Ruby P. Herlong, Saluda High School, Saluda; Mrs. Gwen Johnson, Beaufort High School, Beaufort; Mrs. Mary Frances Newman, R. H. Fulmer Junior High School, West Columbia; Mrs. Dora Mae Shaw, McLaurin Junior High School, Sumter; Mrs. Sara L. Strachan, Director of Reading, Richland County School District Two, and Principal, Forest Lake Elementary School, Columbia; Miss Naomi C. Williams, C. A. Brown High School, Charleston; and Mrs. Bernice Yeager, Reading Coordinator, Lancaster City Schools, Lancaster.

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CHAPTER ONE

Rationale For Reading Instruction In The Secondary School

Although the need for providing reading instruction in the secondary school was recognized as early as 1925 by the National Society for the Study of Education,[1] only in recent years have efforts been made to extend reading instruction into junior and senior high schools. Secondary schools have continued to become more crowded with students of widely varying skills and levels of achievement, requiring the teaching of basic and specialized reading skills.

South Carolina has a number of unique conditions which require special attention to secondary students' reading abilities and habits. Several dialects are spoken here. The non-English speaking population is increasing. A rural economy is giving way to industrialization. Increasing mobility of population is evident. The range of reading achievement in almost every secondary classroom spans several grades. The dropout problem has been compounded by the inability of many secondary school students to read and to study effectively.

Recent studies indicate that inadequate reading skills have contributed to both the dropout problem in secondary schools and the number of male citizens found unacceptable for military service. Ned D. Marksheffel's statement that "at least 90% of all dropouts have reading problems"[2] is supported to a large extent by studies conducted in South Carolina. In a dropout study conducted by one large school district in South Carolina, 116 of 170 dropouts in 1962-1963 showed evidence of reading difficulties. In the following academic year, 198 of 259 dropouts in the same district had reading difficulties, while in the third year 153 of 210 dropouts had reading problems. For each year, the percentage of dropouts with reading difficulties exceeded 70 per cent.

A statewide dropout study conducted by the State Department of Education in 1966 cited reading difficulties and the lack of reading opportunities as two of the major causes of dropouts in South Carolina secondary schools.[3] A three-year study of selective service rejectees in South Carolina showed that the number of rejectees reading below the fifth grade level ranged from 15.5 per cent the first year to 14.1 per cent the second year to 8.1 per cent the third year. Rejectees reading between the fifth and eleventh grade levels ranged from 31.2 per cent the first year to 30.6 per cent the second year to 15.7 per cent the third year.[4] These plus other conditions make clear the challenge to include reading instruction in the secondary school curriculum.

The wide variety of experiences brought to the classroom, coupled with the obvious indication that many students are not reading functionally, poses both problems and opportunities for the classroom teacher. It is the teacher's unique responsibility to develop each student's reading potential, the most useful and necessary of all learning tools. Research indicates that 80 to 90 per cent of the study activities in the average secondary school requires reading skill for successful achievement. Not only the slow learner and underachiever, but also the talented student, can and must increase reading skills through a planned program of reading instruction.

As teachers, supervisors, and administrators examine the status of their students' reading achievement, they should ask these and other questions. Why do staff members complain about their students' reading deficiencies? Has library circulation and use increased in recent years? Have test scores pertaining to reading been carefully evaluated and used in planning effective instructional programs? What is the real reason for student dropout? Is there a relationship between discipline problems and reading difficulties?

After determining the answers to these and other pertinent questions, teachers, supervisors, and administrators usually discover that the school needs a planned reading program which will help each student develop his maximum potential, personally and academically. Many studies show that students at all academic levels can benefit from continuous specific reading instruction.

Working together, teachers, supervisors and administrators must determine the approach most appropriate to their particular school or district. Ideally, this approach would be the comprehensive all-school developmental reading program. Such a program provides reading instruction for all students in all classes at varied proficiency levels. In addition to having available the reading specialist in a comprehensive all-school developmental reading program, all subject area teachers teach reading and study skills pertinent to their subjects.

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[1] Guy Montrose Whipple, ed., "A Modern Program of Reading Instruction for the Grades and for the High School," *Report of the National Committee on Reading*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1925), p. 25.

[2] Ned D. Marksheffel, *Better Reading in the Secondary School* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966), p. V.

[3] *Dropouts in South Carolina Schools* (Columbia, South Carolina: State Department of Education, April, 1966), pp. 25-26.

[4] Hubert M. Clements, Jack A. Duncan, and Richard E. Hardy, *The Unfit Majority: A Research Study of the Rehabilitation of Selective Service Rejectees in South Carolina* (Columbia, South Carolina: South Carolina Vocational Rehabilitation Department, 1967), p. 19.

On the other hand, the school may find it more feasible to begin with a compromise reading program in which special developmental and/or remedial reading courses are offered or instruction in reading is provided in an extended period in the English class or as a substitute English class. After careful and exhaustive exploration of faculty talent and interest, a principal and his staff may find virtually untouched skills and resources. Many secondary reading programs have originated with the interest of one teacher who has little academic knowledge of the teaching of reading skills but who is vitally interested in the development of his students.

Through careful independent study, and eventually through college level courses, teachers and administrators can initiate a compromise or a comprehensive all-school developmental reading program that will enhance the reading skills of all students. Hopefully, any compromise program will lead to the comprehensive all-school developmental approach.

Characteristics of Secondary Reading Programs

Effective secondary reading programs are characterized by sound planning and total involvement of the entire staff. Listed below are criteria for a secondary reading program as suggested by Livesay, Robinson, and Anderson.[5] These criteria may be useful in organizing and implementing a program which is intended to provide assistance in reading and study skills for all students.

"1. A sound reading program is planned cooperatively by the total staff or by an adequate representative of the staff.
2. It is directed toward specific goals leading to independence in reading.
3. It is balanced and is therefore concerned with all aspects of reading.
4. It provides for basic skill instruction with directed application to a variety of reading situations.
5. It provides for the individual reading needs of all students on a basis of adequate diagnosis.
6. It adjusts instruction and materials to those individual needs.
7. It makes special provision for relieving the reading needs of the severely retarded reader who cannot obtain all the help he needs through classroom instruction.
8. It endeavors to make students cognizant of their strengths, weaknesses, and goals through a continuous evaluation program.
9. It allows subject-matter teachers to teach the reading skills pertinent to their own subjects.
10. It makes in-service training a continuing factor in the reading program.
11. It is understood by students, school personnel, parents, and the community at large.
12. It is continuously evaluated in terms of specific goals."

Types of Reading Programs

Generally speaking, there are at least three types of reading programs in existence in secondary schools. These include developmental, corrective, and remedial reading, all of which differ in purposes, organization, and approaches.

Developmental reading programs continue the upward expansion of reading skills in all areas and develop new skills, appreciations, and interests of students. Skills such as word analysis, vocabulary, comprehension and interpretation, rate, reading in the content fields, critical and creative reading, research skills, and reading-study techniques are taught and refined in developmental programs.

One of the most important skills essential for successful reading at the secondary level is reading flexibility. In a developmental program students are taught to establish purposes for reading, to evaluate material, and to adjust reading rate according to their purpose for reading and the type of material read. Students are taught to vary their rates from very slow in technical, scientific materials to very fast in familiar, non-technical recreational material. Such a skill is essential for all students, especially those planning to continue their education beyond the secondary level.

Developmental programs are often provided through instruction in a special developmental reading course, within an English class, or within a core course or block-type program. Some secondary schools have provided developmental programs by enlisting the participation of all teachers and staff members to combine instruction in reading with instruction in the content subjects. Such all-school efforts insure to a large extent the development of basic and functional reading skills of all students in each academic subject. Developmental reading instruction results in improved skills, interests, and appreciations in both the content subjects and reading.

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[5] H. Alan Robinson and Sidney J. Rauch, *Guiding the Reading Program.* © 1965, Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Corrective reading programs provide help for students experiencing reading difficulties which are not severe and can be easily overcome. Students in need of corrective instruction may be deficient in a few skills, such as word recognition, comprehension, vocabulary and rate; but they are not reading several levels below their capacities. These students need some assistance in overcoming their marked deficiencies in a few minor or even major skills.

Corrective instruction may be provided in special reading classes where students with similar difficulties are assigned, or the instruction may be provided by a subject area teacher, especially the English teacher, in the regular classroom. The duration of the corrective program and the methods and materials used are based upon the extent of the students' deficiencies in reading skills.

Remedial reading programs provide intensified, individualized instruction for students who are seriously handicapped in important reading skills but have the capacity to achieve at higher levels. Many authorities agree that remedial instruction should be provided for students who are functioning two or more levels below their capacities. This instruction must be based on an intensive and continuing diagnosis since the cause of their difficulties are multiple, often involving visual problems, unfavorable attitudes, poor study habits and skills, short attention spans, and inadequate reading instruction in previous years.

Remedial instruction is best conducted in special reading classes for an individual or a very small group of students working with a highly skilled and trained reading teacher. Often this teacher is assisted by special services personnel, such as guidance counselors, social workers, and school psychologists. Methods and materials of instruction are carefully chosen to meet individual needs, and instruction is provided daily over an extended period of time.

Some reading authorities, like Karlin,[6] recognize the fact that classroom teachers have been able to help students in need of remedial reading within the regular classroom, especially if there is no other help available. Therefore, classroom teachers are encouraged to take courses in remedial reading in order to provide remedial assistance for students in their own classrooms.

Teachers, supervisors, and administrators participating in any of these reading programs may expect to see student improvement in many subject areas. However, in the process of teaching reading skills, teachers must not lose sight of the most important value of all — reading for the sheer pleasure of reading! If reluctant readers can become enthusiastic readers, the reading program can be judged successful.

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[6] Robert Karlin, *Teaching Reading in High School* (Indianapolis, Indiana: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1964), p. 16.

CHAPTER TWO

Philosophy and Objectives of Secondary Reading Instruction

Philosophy

Learning to read is a complex developmental process which begins early and continues throughout life. As an individual extends his experiences, he develops his abilities, deepens his insights, increases his interests, and realizes more of his potential. Reading is closely allied with the other language arts and facilitates an individual's ability to think, reason, judge, discriminate, evaluate, discern, and solve problems. Considering the many areas in which reading undergirds an individual's learning, reading necessarily incorporates the acquiring of many interrelated skills.

Reading is a skilled process, not a subject. Moreover, reading has no content of its own; the curricular areas supply its content. Consequently, all teachers of academic and technical subjects are responsible for helping students to develop skills essential to reading in the many different subject areas. Secondary teachers who emphasize reading as one of the major learning goals in each subject contribute significantly to their students' personal and academic growth.

The high school curriculum is basically exploratory and requires much reading. It is therefore the right of every student to receive instruction in basic and functional reading skills and in all other areas of communication that promote reading growth and efficient learning. It is also the secondary school's responsibility to help students develop the lifetime reading habit, to extend reading interests and tastes, and to develop new appreciations of and positive attitudes toward reading.

Secondary school teachers must feel a deep concern for the students who have potential but read poorly. A corrective and/or remedial program, staffed by skilled and trained reading teachers, should be provided for such students. Likewise, a meaningful developmental program should be provided for students who read well but need guidance in acquiring the more advanced skills that secondary school and college courses require. Even when trained reading teachers are available, subject area teachers must continue to assume responsibility for improving reading skills in their areas of specialization.

The uniqueness of the individual determines the type of reading instruction, the teaching methods, and the materials to be used. No one method of reading instruction is best. The best method for an individual student is the method that more nearly fits his specific needs and offers the greatest potential for development. Multi-level materials with a wide range of interests and difficulty should be available to and used by both subject area and reading teachers, replacing the single textbook used for so long in many subject fields. More important than methods and materials are enthusiastic and perceptive teachers — the key to any successful instructional program.

Objectives

The major purpose of secondary reading instruction should be to help each student develop the reading skills and habits through which he becomes a diversified and able reader according to his ability. To achieve this purpose, secondary teachers should pursue the following specific basic objectives:

1. To help all students develop and improve basic and functional reading skills.
2. To provide students with essential knowledge of techniques for continuous development of word recognition, vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, and reading flexibility.
3. To aid students in learning to read critically and creatively.
4. To help students develop specific purposes for reading.
5. To teach students how to find specific information.
6. To enable students to extend their own experiences.
7. To add to students' appreciation of their heritage through reading.
8. To help students appreciate different cultural mores and social, ethical, and spiritual values.
9. To increase students' interest and ability in sharing pleasure and information through reading orally.
10. To provide students with the knowledge to select reading materials from which to fulfill personal needs.
11. To broaden students' interests and desire to read a variety of materials.
12. To encourage students to form the lifetime habit of reading.

CHAPTER THREE

Overview of Reading in the Elementary School

For the secondary teacher to understand the important role of reading in the junior and senior high school, some background knowledge of the elementary school reading program is necessary. Nearly all elementary instructional activities relate to reading. When reading is involved, instruction in basic skills is usually provided as needed in the elementary grades.

The elementary reading program generally includes a specified amount of time daily during which basic reading skills are taught. This amount of time varies from grade to grade. In the primary grades, as much as one-half of the instructional day is often devoted to teaching reading and the other language arts. In the intermediate grades, less time is allotted to basic reading instruction, as many reading skills and abilities are taught in the subject areas.

Content of Elementary Reading Programs

Elementary reading instruction includes word recognition and word meaning skills; various comprehension skills, including literal, inferential, implicit and explicit skills, and critical and creative thinking; reading-study skills; various reading rate skills; oral reading skills; and extensive reading for reinforcement and enjoyment.

More specifically, the elementary school reading program is designed to help students develop proficiency in the

1. Ability to recognize words through the use of configuration, picture, and context clues, phonetic and structural analysis skills, and dictionary usage.
2. Ability to associate appropriate meanings with word forms and understand varied word meanings through experience, context clues, and dictionary use.
3. Ability to comprehend the meanings of words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and longer selections of material read; recognize and organize facts and details; find main ideas; detect the writer's purpose; and understand sequence.
4. Ability to interpret, evaluate, and appreciate materials read by predicting outcomes, perceiving relationships, evaluating material read, making judgments, drawing inferences and conclusions, detecting an author's mood, purpose and tone, analyzing material, and differentiating between fact and opinion.
5. Ability to read at varying rates according to the type of material and the purpose for which it is being read. Flexible reading rates introduced in the upper elementary grades, using various materials, include skimming, scanning, reflective study-type reading, and rapid reading.
6. Ability to read well orally to an audience to share information, clarify ideas, develop better understanding, and obtain enjoyment and pleasure. Oral reading skills are developed in the elementary grades by directing attention to reading in thought units, observing correct punctuation, enunciation and pronunciation, and varying pitch and volume of voice. Materials used for oral reading in-

clude poetry, drama, and narrative stories.

7. Ability to use a variety of reading-study skills, such as using the dictionary; locating specific information in textbooks and reference books through the use of the index, the table of contents, and the glossary; using the library for obtaining information and enjoying various materials; and organizing information through selecting main ideas and details, following directions, summarizing, outlining, and note-taking.
8. Ability to select appropriate materials that will enhance reading skills, interests, and habits.
9. Ability to read for pleasure and enjoyment as a leisure-time activity, thus developing the lifetime reading habit.

Types of Elementary Reading Instruction

Basic reading skills are generally taught in three types of instructional programs in the elementary grades. These types are developmental, corrective, and remedial reading.

In the developmental program, skills are introduced sequentially in all grades. Developmental reading instruction is based on the concept that learning to read is a continuous process beginning early in the school program and extending upward through the grades. Readiness for learning any new skill or concept is considered important in every elementary grade, not just the first grade.

Most elementary schools use carefully graded and selected basal readers in the developmental program to promote acquisition of skills needed for successful learning. These basal materials are supplemented with varied independent and instructional reading materials for skills reinforcement. Many schools supplement basal reader instruction with such approaches as language-experience and multilevel instruction. Some elementary schools have recently introduced the linguistic, programmed, individualized, and Initial Teaching Alphabet approaches into the developmental reading program.

Several different basic patterns of class organization are used in the developmental program. Most elementary teachers organize their program around several flexible reading achievement groups within the class. Each group is taught at a level commensurate with its abilities and needs. Some elementary teachers use tutorial, special needs, interest, team, and "research" grouping in addition.

The practice of working with an entire class group at the same time, using one level of basal material, is neither encouraged nor widely used. Few classrooms exist where all students are functioning at the same level and need similar skills.

In some classrooms, developmental reading instruction is completely individualized. Each student selects materials which he wishes to read. Using this material, the teacher confers with each student individually to assess needs, teach skills, and promote wide reading in related materials. This approach has been especially helpful in meeting the needs of exceptional learners.

Through varied and consistent experiences in developmental reading, elementary students are introduced to the different types of reading required in the subject areas. They are also encouraged to do much recreational reading, thus extending basic skills and developing the lifetime reading habit.

When students fail to develop reading skills in the basic developmental program, corrective and/or remedial instruction is often provided. Corrective instruction is usually given in the regular classroom to individuals or small groups who are experiencing minor reading skill problems which can be easily overcome.

Remedial instruction is sometimes given to seriously handicapped readers who are reading approximately two or more years below their capacities. Such instruction is generally provided by a special reading teacher employed to work with individuals or small groups of students during the school day. Some elementary schools, however, have reduced class sizes to provide remedial instruction within the framework of a regular class, since remedial reading teachers are rather scarce in the state.

Concepts of Reading

Because various teachers and reading authorities view reading in many ways, there are numerous definitions and concepts of reading which influence the types of elementary reading instruction provided today. "For some, reading is producing sounds represented by the printed symbols and putting these sounds together into words. This process is commonly known as word recognition or identification. Sometimes it is called 'decoding' or 'breaking the code.' "[1]

To others, reading is recognizing the words on a printed page and understanding their meaning. This process is known as word perception. Some teachers, critics, and even reading specialists still believe that developing word perception skills is the teacher's major instructional task. This idea was more widely accepted in the past than today. Word perception should be considered a means to an end, not an end in itself. Students must be taught to recognize and understand words as well as to understand the author's message, using various comprehension skills.[2]

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[1] Helen M. Robinson, "Teaching Reading Today," *The Instructor*, March, 1965, p. 56.

To other teachers and reading authorities, reading involves word perception and comprehension as well as reaction to what is understood and integration of ideas. Those who adhere to this concept believe that a student must be taught to read critically. He must learn to judge, evaluate, interpret, and exercise reason as he reads. He must also fuse new ideas with previous knowledge and old ideas. This concept of reading, if followed in daily teaching, will inevitably lead students to continued personal and social growth toward maturity.[3]

Stages of Reading Development

According to Dr. William S. Gray, the basic reading program is organized in terms of five broad stages of development. The first four stages are concerned with reading instruction in the elementary grades and can be characterized as follows:

1. The first stage, readiness for reading, usually comprises the pre-school years, the kindergarten, and the early part of first grade. Throughout this period heavy emphasis is placed upon experiences and training that will promote reading readiness. If there are physical and/or emotional deficiences that might interfere with reading readiness progress, steps should be taken to overcome them when possible. This period is essential for all future progress in reading.
2. The second or initial stage in learning to read usually occurs in the first grade for those children who make normal progress. During this stage, pupils should acquire a keen interest in learning to read, develop a thoughtful reading attitude, engage in continuous meaningful reading, and begin to read independently.
3. The third stage, a period of rapid development of reading skills, usually occurs in the second and third grades. It is characterized by significant growth in reading interests, notable progress in comprehension and interpretation, independence in word recognition, fluency in oral reading, and increased speed in silent reading. At the conclusion of this period, pupils who make normal progress should be able to read with reasonable ease, understanding, and pleasure any material usually assigned in the early fourth grade.
4. The fourth stage, a period of wide reading, normally occurs in grades four, five, and six. The chief purposes of instruction and guidance during this period are to promote comprehension and interpretation, to increase efficiency in reading for different purposes, to improve oral reading, to extend reading interests and elevate reading tastes, and to encourage increased efficiency in the use of materials. Pupils who make normal progress during this stage should score at the seventh-grade level in silent reading at its conclusion.[4]

Interrelationships of the Language Arts

At all stages of development, effective elementary reading programs recognize the interrelationships among the language arts and coordinate reading instruction with listening, speaking, and writing. Even though each of the language arts has its own skills, these areas overlap at several points. Each of the language arts contributes to and is dependent upon the others for complete development. When skills are developed in one of the language arts, improvement is often reflected in another. Studies clearly indicate that competence in spoken language appears to contribute to competence in reading and writing.[5] Improved listening contributes to the development of better speaking and hearing vocabularies.[6] Competence in listening and speaking influences ability in writing, and writing is highly associated with skill in reading.[7] Reading affects, and is affected by, the other language arts.[8]

Specifically, there are four language arts: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening and reading are considered receptive arts through which experiences are gained. Speaking and writing are termed expressive arts through which experiences are shared. All are controlled by the thinking process, itself considered a language art by some authorities. Listening and reading require similar thought processes, such as interpreting main ideas, finding supporting details, perceiving relationships, summarizing and organizing ideas, detecting emotions, grasping significance, and understanding purposes.[9] Speaking and writing also require these thought processes but from a different point of view. Use of the expressive arts is basic to learning to read for meaning. Speaking encourages thinking which prepares the student for reading development. Writing is a direct outgrowth of refining thinking skills in listening, speaking, and reading.[10]

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[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] William S. Gray, "The Nature and Organization of Basic Instruction in Reading," *The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report*, Thirty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington, Illinois: Fantagraph Printing and Stationery Company, 1937), p. 76.

[5] Walter Loban, *The Language of Elementary School Children* (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), p. 88.

[6] George D. Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963), p. 182.

[7] Gertrude H. Hildreth, "Interrelationships Between Written Expression and the Other Language Arts," *Interrelationships Among the Language Arts* (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1954), p. 4.

[8] Agatha Townsend, "Interrelationships Between Reading and Other Language Arts Areas," *Elementary English*, XXXI (February, 1954), 99-109.

[9] Lillian Gray, *Teaching Children to Read* (3rd ed.; New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1963), p. 21.

The language arts have a common purpose—communicating ideas from one person to another. In addition, there are several common characteristics among the language arts. All of them make use of a common code or signal to transmit "messages." This signal is the *word*.[11] Words, either spoken or written, are symbols assigned to represent objects, action, relationships, or a combination of these. Words have no meanings as such. When one either hears, speaks, reads, or writes a word, he must recall some experience which will help to give meaning to that word.[12] Meaning specifically resides in the experiences of the learner.

A child's listening and speaking vocabularies developed in his early years form an important part of his linguistic ability for learning to read. By utilizing a child's knowledge of spoken words, teaching beginning reading is made easier.[13] Throughout the elementary and secondary school years, reading success continues to depend upon the size and usefulness of one's vocabulary.

Not only do all the language arts make use of the same medium of words, but they have other common characteristics. They follow the same pattern in the use of words, sentences, and structuring ideas.[14] Each of the language arts is also intimately involved with thinking.[15]

In his study of the language of elementary school children, Loban[16] emphasizes the interrelationships of the language arts. He reports very positive relationships among listening, speaking, reading, and writing. He found that students in the lowest and highest quartiles in writing were correspondingly low and high in reading achievement. Those who wrote well in the third grade were also the ones who rated above average in speaking and reading. Likewise, those who showed competence in general language ability were also highly competent in reading ability. Those low in general language ability were low in reading ability.[17]

Language is a form of behavior which is learned by each individual through experience and imitation. Language skills are closely related in their development, with each reinforcing the other. To provide a complete program of instruction, all teachers must understand the process and sequence of language development.

Betts[18] emphasizes that language develops in an orderly sequence. Through various experiences, the child acquires the necessary prerequisites for language. In acquiring language skills, a child learns to *listen* to language. Then as he develops linguistically, he learns to imitate sounds or to *speak*. Somewhat later, he learns to interpret visual symbols or to *read*. Finally, the child learns to use visual symbols to communicate with others or to *write*.

In the process of language development, there must be constant refinement through broadened experiences and increased power to do sustained thinking.[19] Studies show that a student's language is a direct product of his environment, his experiences, and his thinking abilities. If both elementary and secondary teachers understand the interrelationships of the language arts and the sequence of language development, reading will not be isolated from the other language arts and treated as a separate "subject." Rather, reading will be given its proper place in the language continuum as a receptive art, completely dependent upon competence in listening, speaking, writing, and thinking for mastery.

Expectations at the End of the Elementary Reading Program

Since students completing the elementary reading program vary considerably in their physical, social, emotional, and intellectual growth and experiential backgrounds, various stages of reading and language development should be expected. Many of these students reached the stage of readiness to read at different ages and maturity levels. They then progressed in reading and language development through the grades at different rates. Thus, at the end of the elementary program, the levels of achievement are usually highly varied. Some students will be reading at the beginning seventh-grade level; others will be well above or below this level.

The wide range of reading mastery which students evidence at the end of the elementary grades makes the need for continued teaching of basic and functional reading skills at the secondary level unquestionable. A continuous reading program is no longer optional but rather a necessity in today's educational structure.

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[10] Hildreth, *op cit.*

[11] Lillian Gray, *op cit.*, p. 18.

[12] *Ibid.*, pp. 18-19.

[13] *Ibid*, pp. 19-20.

[14] Mildred A. Dawson, "The Role of Reading in Relationship to Other Areas of Communication," *New Frontiers in Reading*, International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 5 (New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1960), pp. 156-160.

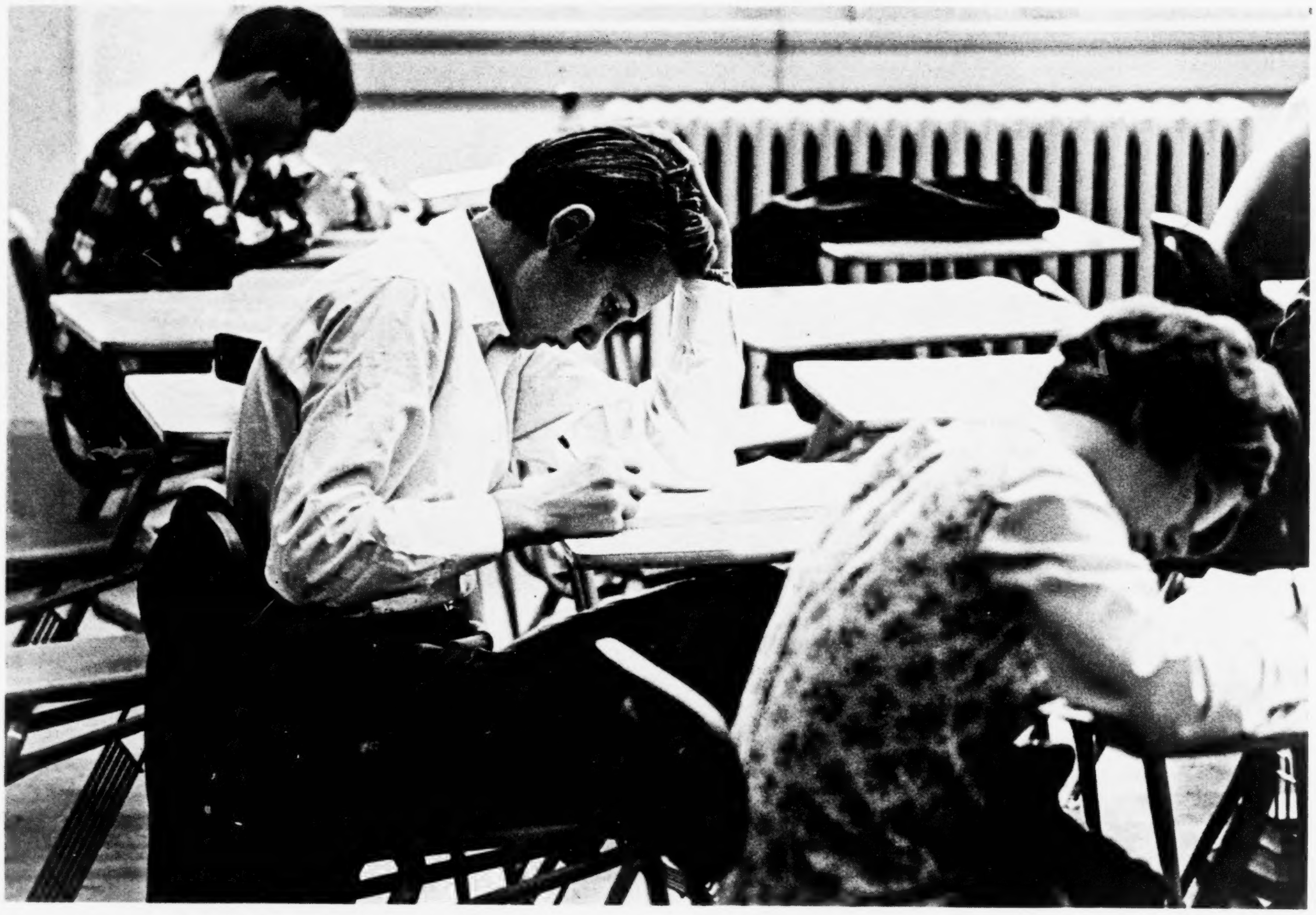
[15] Lillian Gray, *op cit.*, p. 22.

[16] Loban, *op cit.*, p. 87.

[17] *Ibid.*, pp. 85-87.

[18] Emmett A. Betts, *Foundations of Reading Instruction* (New York: American Book Company, 1957), pp. 6-10.

[19] *Ibid.*



CHAPTER FOUR

Testing and Evaluation

Comprehensive testing and evaluation of the school's total instructional program lead to continuous progress in all areas. They provide the necessary foundation for change characterized by planning and purpose, rather than change occurring by drift and accident. An effective appraisal of the extent to which the school's objectives are being achieved is an essential part of the total instructional plan.

Purposeful evaluation of the reading program is based upon four major principles.

1. Knowledges and skills to be measured should be directly related to objectives of the reading program.
2. Evaluation of an individual's reading achievement should be based on knowledge of his potential.
3. Evaluation should be sufficient in scope to assess growth not only in reading skills but also in social and personal development as a result of reading.
4. Evaluation should be continuous.[1]

Tests administered according to these principles yield data that will help teachers and guidance counselors to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the reading program, to provide direction and dimension for program planning, to diagnose difficulties, to group students, and to determine the degree to which students are being taught to function as adequate readers.

Thorough assessment of the reading abilities of junior and senior high school students necessitates the use of a variety of evaluation tools: standardized tests, informal reading inventories, questionnaires, checklists, observations, conferences, cumulative records, teacher-made tests, reading interviews, and other subjective techniques. These tools may be used with an individual or with groups. Their optimum use depends upon the proper identification of the area to be evaluated and upon the consideration which must be given to such related factors as intelligence, vision, hearing, emotional development, experiential background, motivation, and interests. Prior to testing, the teacher should decide what is to be measured, how it is to be measured, how observations and data are to be recorded, and how the information is to be interpreted and used to improve student-learning experiences.[2]

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[1] A. Sterl Artley, "Evaluation of Reading," *The Instructor*, March, 1965, p. 89.

[2] Ned D. Marksheffel, *Better Reading In the Secondary School* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966), p. 83.

Standardized Tests

Standardized tests are among the most commonly used evaluation instruments. These tests should be carefully selected and used. In-service programs for the entire faculty should be devoted to the selection, use, and interpretation of these tests, as many decisions and instructional practices are based on the results of standardized tests. Through in-service programs, schools may examine the scope of the testing program and advance it from a minimum to an optimum one.

A *minimum testing program* in the junior high school includes the measurement of *scholastic aptitude*, a yearly *achievement test*, and tests of *basic skills*, such as work-study, reading, and language skills. The *optimum program* includes *survey tests of achievement, diagnostic tests, special reading tests, personal-social adjustment inventories, interest inventories*, and others.

The *minimum testing program* in the high school includes a test of *scholastic aptitude* and *achievement tests* in subject areas. The *optimum program* also includes *adjustment inventories, interest inventories, problem checklists* and others.[3]

Standardized tests are commonly used to measure the wide range of reading levels in a class, school, or school system. Having norms, they provide standards for comparing students on a nationwide basis. They are usually the first tools used to identify those students who are below grade level and who need further testing. Standardized tests also provide standards for making improvements in various curriculum areas.[4]

Because of their structure, standardized tests have many advantages. First, their contents have usually been determined through study by teams rather than by an individual. Second, their design includes pretesting to determine the level of difficulty of the test items, the amount of testing time required, and the sizes of typical scores made by various types of students. Third, a description of the method used in developing the test is usually included in the test manual along with other technical information on administration, scoring, and interpretation. Fourth, several parallel forms are usually available for comparison. These tests are objective in administering and scoring, and many tests provide profile charts useful in the interpretation of results. Fifth, the standardized test permits many students to be tested simultaneously.

Standardized tests, however, have limitations. They are not constructed to measure such important aspects of learning as interest, attitude, appreciation, determination, and purpose. They sometimes fail to diagnose specific needs of students who score well on standardized tests, but are unable to perform correspondingly well in the classroom; conversely, they may not measure accurately the performance of students who do well on daily work but are unable to score well on tests.[5]

Another problem faced by those responsible for the construction of tests, particularly achievement tests, is how to make a single test suitable for students who have been instructed by different teachers, using different textbooks, supplementary materials, and methodologies. Although based on elements thought to be most commonly taught, the tests may not have standardized norms appropriate for use with all students.

Some weaknesses not inherent in the test's structure itself lie in its inappropriate usage. Failure to follow directions, to observe time limits, or to administer the test with the understanding that it is being given to appraise the student's performance, not the teacher's, affects the validity of the test. Grave dangers also lie in basing judgments of student performance on one test result rather than on a series of scores and in deciding the fate of an individual with the results of a test score without due consideration of other test results, teacher judgments, and past performances. Teachers should remember that a test score represents only one score that the student made on a particular day in his life.

Standardized tests are commonly used to furnish reliable data for screening students for developmental, corrective, and remedial programs. They can be used to identify students who need more specific analytic testing. In some instances, standardized tests may be used to predict performance in a given subject area, since scores are sometimes useful in determining whether the student can be expected to do well or poorly in a given subject.

Standardized tests may also serve to determine the individual's progress in a given area. For this purpose, there are comparable forms of the test, enabling the student to be tested in both the fall and spring terms.

Standardized tests serve uniquely as an added criterion of measurement to assist the teacher in evaluating the emphasis to be placed upon specific skills and content in reading and in the various subject matter areas. Furthermore, these tests are useful in helping the teacher to evaluate, to some extent, the effectiveness and appropriateness of his teaching. Test results may show, for example, that in one class or group heavy emphasis may have been placed on facts and details, while in another, emphasis may have been placed on cause and effect relationships and inferential thinking. Such information should be useful to teachers in appraising the instructional program and deciding on future instructional activities.

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[3] J. Stanley Ahmann and Marvin D. Glock, *Evaluating Pupil Growth* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1967), pp. 483-484.

[4] H. Alan Robinson and Sidney J. Rauch, *Guiding The Reading Program* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965), p. 69.

[5] *Ibid.*

There are three types of standardized reading tests — survey tests, diagnostic tests, and semidiagnostic tests. Each type is structured for various purposes and uses in measurement and evaluation.

Whether a reading test can be labeled a survey test depends more or less upon the purpose for which it is used and upon the number of its subtests. A reading survey test is constructed to measure the general level of difficulty at which a student can read. Survey tests usually include sections on general vocabulary, comprehension and reading rate.

In a comprehensive testing program, survey tests are generally given first to identify areas of individual and group weaknesses. Increasingly, test batteries are being recommended to serve this purpose. A distinct advantage of batteries is the availability of a profile, providing a more adequate interpretation of the student's strengths and weaknesses. Teachers using the high school batteries, however, should be aware of the problem of developing meaningful norms since populations differ for each subject area and since all students may not have completed the same courses being tested. For some students, therefore, the norms would not be valid.[6]

Survey tests help the teacher to do initial screening for serious learning disabilities; however, the teacher must supplement the survey test scores with additional data.

The diagnostic reading test may be administered to students who do poorly on the survey test. This test, containing items sampling certain aspects of learning that have caused difficulty for large numbers of students, is used to analyze areas of weakness. Since diagnostic tests give information for remediation, they are usually longer in order to make the subtests more reliable. Subtests yield scores on various skills, such as syllabication, knowledge of consonant sounds, blending, reversals, endings, vocabulary, sentence meaning, paragraph meaning, and various other comprehension skills. Detailed diagnostic tests are usually individually administered and require more administrative skill than the survey test. Since norms are not always provided in diagnostic tests, it is important for the teacher to make a careful analysis of the test responses to determine the student's weaknesses.[7]

Semidiagnostic tests often have lengthy sections on comprehension and reading rate added to the sections on vocabulary and word recognition. They may also attempt to measure additional factors. These tests usually contain more items and require more testing time. A careful item analysis of this test often reveals many basic weaknesses in reading.

A comprehensive list of standardized reading tests is included in Appendix F. These tests will be of more value if used with other evaluation instruments, which are also listed in the appendix.

Informal Reading Inventories

While helpful to the teacher, standardized reading tests do not give a complete reading evaluation. Teachers should use informal measures, such as the informal reading inventory, to gain other necessary information.[8]

Informal reading inventories are considered very helpful in appraising strengths and weaknesses in reading. They may be commercially prepared or teacher-made and may be administered to an individual or to a group.

Most teacher-made informal reading inventories are constructed from a set of graded readers or multi-level content materials being used in the classroom and structured to test specific skills. Factual, inferential, and vocabulary questions are usually included in a test of this type. The informal reading inventory generally consists of two reading selections taken from the same grade level. One is to be read orally; the other silently. The selections are arranged in the order of difficulty, beginning as low as the first-grade level if necessary and extending to the twelfth-grade level or above.

A graded word recognition test may also be developed and used to test word recognition skills in isolation as a part of the inventory. The words included should be selected from carefully graded materials.

Through skillful administration and interpretation of the informal reading inventory, several levels of performance can be obtained. The teacher can identify the independent, instructional, frustration, and hearing capacity levels.

The independent reading level is reached when the individual student can read with approximately 98 to 99 per cent accuracy in word recognition and his comprehension is approximately 90 per cent or better. He reads well rhythmically and observes punctuation. His silent reading is more rapid than oral at this level.

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[6] Ahmann and Glock, *op cit.*, p. 358.

[7] *Ibid.*, pp. 355-358.

[8] Robert Karlin, *Teaching Reading in High School* (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1964), p. 73.

The instructional level is reached when the student can profit from instruction and read with guidance from the teacher. He can read with approximately 95 per cent accuracy in word recognition, with comprehension of approximately 75 per cent or better. His oral reading is expressive; his silent reading is more rapid than oral; and he shows little or no evidence of lip movement, vocalization, head movement, and the like.

The frustration level is reached when materials cannot be handled by the student. His word recognition score is approximately 90 per cent or less and his comprehension is 50 per cent or lower.

The hearing capacity level is obtained by the examiner reading material aloud to the individual at levels beyond the frustration reading level. The student's ability to listen to and comprehend approximately 75 per cent will determine his hearing capacity.[9]

There are many valid reasons for including informal reading inventories in a comprehensive program of testing and evaluation.

1. They give a good indication of what has been learned over a short period of time.
2. They help the teacher determine teaching effectiveness.
3. They compare one student with members of his class instead of students of another school.
4. They measure achievement in specific skills as taught by the teacher.
5. They give students practice in following directions.
6. They show weaknesses and strengths of the class in specific skills.
7. They help students to learn through observation and correction of errors.
8. They help in evaluating the progress of reading growth in specific areas.[10]

If constructed well and administered intelligently, informal reading inventories should help to validate the information secured from other evaluation tools.

Informal Measure of Study Skills

Secondary teachers are often concerned about students who perform satisfactorily on short selections in a standardized test but who are unable to cope with longer reading selections. These students often lack proper reading-study skills, such as surveying materials, adjusting reading rate to purpose, using parts of textbooks, using various sources of information, using graphic aids in written materials, summarizing, organizing details, and the like. Informal tests to measure these skills are needed in a comprehensive program of evaluation.

To appraise the necessary skills in a subject area, the teacher may periodically administer an informal study skills test within a class period. Twenty to thirty minutes should be allotted for reading the material from content area textbooks or resource materials. Once the material has been read, the student should not refer to it again unless a test item requires the use of the reading selection. The teacher may construct a specific number of test items to measure such skills as using parts of a book, using graphic aids, noting main ideas and organization, skimming, and the like. The teacher should observe the various study skills employed by the student and discuss with him skills he uses proficiently as well as those needing further development. Also, the teacher may administer a reading and study skills questionnaire such as the one in Appendix B. If more formal testing of study skills is apparently needed, standardized study skills tests should be administered. Available study skills tests are listed in Appendix F.

Other Evaluation Procedures

Various other procedures of evaluation can be used to supplement the information gained from standardized reading tests and informal inventories. Other evaluation devices and methods include *questionnaires and checklists, daily schedules, cumulative file folders, teacher's observation, the reading interview, parent conferences, themes, reading autobiographies, anecdotal records,* and *screening.* These devices may be helpful in determining reading interests, measuring the effect of reading, and estimating capacity of growth. Although these devices and methods yield information that does not have norms, they do measure working habits, motivation, interest in reading, determination, attitudes toward reading, appreciation, and creative and critical reading—factors which many standardized tests and some inventories cannot reveal. Spache suggests that this information should be very beneficial to the classroom teacher and easily translated into meaningful teaching methods and activities.[11]

Questionnaires and checklists, for example, may reveal students' attitudes and their lack or breadth of experiences. An analysis of the student's *daily*

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[9] Marjorie Seddon Johnson and Roy A. Kress, *Informal Reading Inventories* (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1965), pp. 6-13.

[10] Robinson and Rauch, *op cit.*, p. 74.

[11] George D. Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963), p. 362.

schedule may reveal his reading interests as well as other interests, his reading needs in subject-matter areas, and his extra-curricular activities. The students' *cumulative file folders* contain information on physical factors, home background, mobility, attendance, test scores, and teacher's comments. From a *teacher's observation* and *the reading interview,* difficulties in seeing and hearing may be ascertained, along with other strengths and weaknesses. Hitchcock and Alfred found "teacher observation essential for estimating pupil interest in reading assignments, resistance to distractibility, enthusiasm for reading, speed in assigned reading, willingness to read orally and dependence upon listening as a substitute for reading."[12]

According to Strang and others, "the reading autobiography may give valuable insight into the student's reading development from his own point of view. He tells of his early experiences with reading, his present attitude toward and interest in reading, his reading difficulty or problem as he sees it, and what he thinks caused it. Indirectly he may give important clues to reading difficulty stemming from his relations with family, friends, school, and teachers. In these introspective reports he often reveals what reading means to him." [13]

The value of these informal procedures and devices, like standardized tests, lies in their use and the attitude of the user toward the information revealed. If they are used frequently and the resultant information is compiled and studied with the understanding that the information is not all conclusive, these methods of evaluation will improve the teacher's understanding of the pupil.

Sources for some of these informal evaluation devices and methods are found in Appendix F.

Evaluating the Disadvantaged

In recent years, attention has been focused on testing and evaluating the reading performance and learning potential of the culturally disadvantaged student. Many authorities believe that the identification of the disadvantaged student for educational purposes follows no definite pattern. Many factors must be considered in determining the extent and nature of the student's disadvantages. Generally, a student considered educationally and culturally disadvantaged is one who is unable to make the necessary response to the academic or social learning situation in school. He has been handicapped by environmental conditions and a limited experiential background.

He is said to be characterized by the following:

Negative self-concept

Low language level

Poor utilization and interpretation of feelings with abstract symbols

Difficulty in transition from concrete to abstract modes of thought

Concrete and inflexible intellectual functioning

Unique dialect of spoken language

Low intelligence quotient

Insufficient motivation

Little respect for public school authority

Defeatist attitude

No compassion for less fortunate

Distinctive style of learning

Poor acceptance of criticism

Inability to see advantages to education[14]

Prescriptive steps have been recommended to remove such inadequacies, one being *constantly evaluating* even the smallest increments of growth. The quality and diagnosis of skills needs will depend upon the teacher's awareness of the need for particular skills and a knowledge of those skills. This is especially true in reading, as the acquisition of basic skills is a "must" before the student can proceed to more abstract levels.

The perceptive teacher, exercising highly developed observational abilities, holds the key to assessment, since the techniques now thought to be most valuable to the classroom teacher are those involving listening comprehension. The student's oral responses will indicate his ability to relate ideas, to remember facts, and to use them in a functional way. Observation and recording of responses to structured learning situations supersedes group achievement testing, which usually will do little more than to indicate a grade-level score. It will not furnish the teacher with information of particular skill needs.

The use of group standardized intelligence tests to assess ability of the disadvantaged is not favored. Crippling language and reading problems cause scores that may be detrimental rather than helpful to the student. These tests have not been normed exclusively on a disadvantaged population. *The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test* is highly recommended to give indications of ability, since it does not require reading.[15] The Binet or WISC is recommended for use by trained persons, as these instruments do not necessarily require reading ability to indicate intelligence.

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[12] Arthur Hitchcock and Cleo Alfred, "Can Teachers Make Accurate Estimates of Reading Ability?" *Clearing House,* XXIX (March, 1955), p. 422. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

[13] Ruth Strang, Constance M. McCullough, and Arthur E. Traxler, *The Improvement of Reading* (3rd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), pp. 314-315. Used with permission of McGraw-Hill Book Company.

[14] George W. Henke, "Are the Problems of the Disadvantaged Really New?" *Education Digest* (April, 1967), p. 5. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Tape recordings have been used most successfully to help the teacher to identify areas for instruction. The teacher listens to the student record his thoughts and reactions to questions, because he lacks a knowledge of words to write them. Analyzing the tapes, the teacher notes the cognitive styles of speech.[16] Bernstein noted that the language of the disadvantaged is restrictive rather than divergent. An imperative or a partial sentence form frequently replaces a complete sentence or an explanation. This may be attributed to early childhood when he was accustomed to a brief "yes," "no," "go way," or "later." Though often colorful and descriptive, this pattern is most inadequate and should be carefully assessed for instructional purposes.[17]

Auditory discrimination, may be assessed and developed through use of taped lessons. Together the teacher and the student may study the patterns and note specific needs. Standardized tests are also available for use in this area. Teachers may use the tape recorder to analyze the depth and breadth of the student's vocabulary. Vocabulary may be assessed better by the teacher who listens to the student's attempt to give a satisfactory response to a problem or question, often ending with a substitution of simple words and phrases, inadequately climaxing with "you know."

After the student has been literally immersed in the speech sounds that he needs to acquire and feels that he can express himself in "middle-class" English, he would be better able to make responses on vocabulary items contained in standardized reading tests. For this reason, *anecdotal records* are most helpful in diagnosis, particularly when they describe specific qualities and suggest effective methods of instruction for a particular student.

The teacher should be aware of tests and instruments useful for checking visual and auditory difficulties. For example, when students are found to be able to hear sounds but not to discriminate among them, Wepman's *Auditory Discrimination Test* (Language Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois) would assess fine differences in the sound of words. When vision and hearing need evaluation, the visual efficiency test (Ortho-Rater) and the hearing test (Maico Audiometer) would be helpful. The audiometer is considered one of the most accurate means of identifying loss in auditory acuity because it provides an assessment at different frequencies. Other useful tests for discrimination are *Letter Discrimination Tests: Identifying Capital and Lower Case Letters* by Donald Durrell, and *Word Discrimination Tests* and the *Visual-Motor Test* both by Robinson and Muskopf.

Home visitations are most helpful in evaluating the disadvantaged. Keen observation and well-stated questions will identify problems, attitudes, and interests of both parents and students. The *Minnesota Scale of Parents' Opinions* (University of Minnesota, Institute of Child Welfare) is useful in planning and conducting the interview. Also, suggested interview questions are provided in Appendix D.

Meaningful and cumulative evaluation of disadvantaged students will help teachers to adapt instruction and materials to their needs. This evaluation often will lead to teaching for a depth of understanding in fewer skill areas and setting realistic instructional goals essential to providing successful experiences so important to the disadvantaged.

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[15] Walter B. Barbe, "Identification and Diagnosis of the Needs of the Educationally Retarded and Disadvantaged," *The Educationally Retarded and Disadvantaged*, The Sixty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1967), p. 118.

[16] William D. Sheldon, "Language Skills of the Culturally Disadvantaged," *Reading and Inquiry*, X (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1965), p. 255.

[17] Anna S. Harris, "Early Diagnosis and Intervention in the Prevention of Illiteracy," *Reading and Inquiry*, X (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1965), p. 438.

CHAPTER FIVE

Planning the Individual School Reading Program

Many secondary schools are meeting the challenge of planning programs to help students acquire skills that will enable them to read successfully in textbooks and other materials. Research shows that many students enter and leave high school with poor reading and study habits. Students need avenues in which to improve all areas of reading, especially word attack skills, study skills, vocabulary, comprehension, and reading rates.

Time is an important factor to consider in initiating a reading program. Students not receiving adequate instruction in reading cannot progress satisfactorily in content area assignments until their reading skills are further developed. Without this instruction, students' lives become taut and adjustment problems often result. Time is of essence in designing instructional programs that will help students to develop academically and personally.

There are many specific ways that a school may plan a reading program. A principal may speak to the faculty on current trends in education and show what other schools are doing to upgrade reading proficiency. Visits to observe reading programs at other schools should be helpful. Instructional supervisors may establish workshops designed to acquaint the staff with current practices in reading in all curriculum areas. Consultants from universities may be secured to conduct in-service sessions on ways to organize and implement a reading program. Assignments from professional textbooks may be given to faculty members to read and to share with their fellow teachers.

During this period of "teacher readiness," two important results should be expected. The first is a better understanding about reading itself. Teachers should develop the understanding that reading is a process rather than a subject to be taught and that the reading skills of each student must be developed to the highest levels of competence possible. Teachers should also understand that regardless of the effectiveness of the elementary reading program, many skills can and must be refined, extended, and even developed at the secondary level. The second step is the firm conviction that the development of a reading program is worth staff effort.[1]

Through in-service programs and faculty study, the staff may examine the problems which students encounter in their work. This study may reveal such problems as limited vocabulary knowledge, inability to adjust reading rate to various purposes, failure to come to school for assigned tests, indifference toward parallel reading, an apathetic attitude toward any facet of school life, low College Board scores, and overall low achievement on tests. A summary of problems may show that immediate steps are needed to initiate a schoolwide reading program.

A schoolwide reading committee may be formed to steer the program and develop guidelines for sequential progress. The committee should include a representative from each subject department, a member of the administrative staff, the librarian, the reading teacher, a special education teacher, a speech therapist, a guidance counselor, a social worker, and consultants such as a curriculum coordinator and a reading consultant. Functions of the reading committee should include these activities:

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[1] Margaret Early, "A High School Faculty Considers Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, XIII (April, 1960), 282-287.

1. Developing and maintaining a school philosophy that includes a plan for reading improvement involving all departments
2. Assessing present needs
3. Initiating and implementing a reading program to meet these needs
4. Evaluating the total school program
5. Informing various personnel and staff members of their responsibilities (See Responsibilities of Personnel)
6. Expanding the program as needs arise
7. Studying research findings
8. Writing letters to publishing companies requesting the most up-to-date materials
9. Obtaining material listings from other operational programs
10. Evaluating available instructional materials before curriculum is determined
11. Studying reading tests to determine the ones best suited for the needs
12. Ordering periodicals and other professional literature that relate to reading research
13. Holding frequent discussions with department chairmen and the reading committee on reading progress reports
14. Advising all district and county administrators of the school's progress in establishing the program
15. Informing boards of education of the reading program
16. Compiling pertinent data for faculty evaluation and action
17. Keeping parents and the public informed about the reading program

The person who assumes the responsibility for initiating and implementing the program needs time, during and after school hours, to study available research and outstanding programs throughout the state and nation. Study assures a program based on sound principles. The program resulting from study should be tailored to upgrade the school's most acute problems. As the program develops, less acute needs should also be given attention so that a comprehensive and sequential program will be organized and implemented.

Following the study of the school's reading problems and selection of a reading teacher, a schoolwide testing program should be implemented. The series of tests used should survey and measure word attack skills, rates of reading, vocabulary development, comprehension, study habits and skills, and the like. Reading test scores and findings should be made available to all faculty members so that each may know the level of reading performance of the student body. As soon as students' reading levels are ascertained, suitable materials should be supplied to upgrade the proficiency of each.

Responsibilities of staff members increase as the reading program develops. The ability of the staff to grow with the program will, in great measure, accelerate or decelerate the program.

Responsibilities of Personnel in the Reading Program

Problems of poor reading achievement in a school affect all members of the staff from the superintendent to the custodian. Reading problems manifest themselves in ways ranging from complaints to wanton destruction and damage of school property resulting from frustrations due to failure.

The fact that the entire staff of a school is affected by reading problems suggests that there are contributions which each staff member can make to a program of reading improvement. Some basic responsibilities may be shared by all the staff, while others are unique to a certain team member. It is highly desirable to assign responsibilities and to be sure that they are carried out.

Responsibilities of Administrators

The *superintendent* and *principal* play important roles in the reading program. It is not necessary for the administrator to be a reading specialist to perform certain functions designed to improve reading in his school system.

The *superintendent* should accept these responsibilities:

1. Being fully aware of the status of the reading abilities and experiences of students in his school district;
2. Helping develop the philosophy and goals of the reading program;
3. Having general knowledge of the types of reading programs being conducted in the district and judging whether needs are being met in a sequential manner;
4. Selecting and employing competent reading supervisors and teachers;
5. Providing adequate budget funds for materials, testing and in-service training;
6. Evidencing genuine personal and professional interest in all phases of the reading program by providing time for reports from reading supervisors who have attended meetings and reading workshops;

7. Keeping the school board and the public informed and involved, whenever practical, of the progress of the reading program.

The *principal* will be more closely involved with the actual mechanics of reading instruction. He will know more specific facts relating to his school's reading scores, instructional materials, and personnel needs. He should be involved in the following specific activities:

1. Visiting classes to observe teaching practices and conferring with teachers about reading instruction;
2. Arranging schedules to facilitate students' involvement in reading activities and to allot time for in-service training sessions;
3. Helping teachers interpret and use test results;
4. Evaluating the school's reading program, philosophy and goals;
5. Working with teachers and parents to solve problems and interpret the reading program;
6. Encouraging teachers and students through personal interest in the reading program;
7. Serving on the school reading committee.

Responsibilities of Supervisors

Reading programs are strengthened in schools and districts where *directors of instruction and curriculum* are employed. They can be of specific help in a reading program by:

1. Working closely with reading supervisors to correlate aims of the reading program with those of the total instructional program;
2. Evaluating the total curriculum to ensure sound principles of learning;
3. Aiding the reading specialists in setting up new curricula to give special attention to reading skills;
4. Involving the reading specialist in implementing a sound reading program in the content areas;
5. Identifying individual students for referral to reading specialists;
6. Supporting the reading program through all grade levels and content areas.

The person specifically charged with the responsibility of the reading program in a district is frequently called the *reading specialist, supervisor* or *consultant*. His roles include:

1. Aiding in the development of the philosophy and objectives of the reading program;
2. Maintaining an overview of the reading program, including its strengths and weaknesses;
3. Analyzing present programs and practices and initiating new programs;
4. Recommending needed materials, personnel, facilities, and additional needs to the administration or curriculum coordinator;
5. Conducting demonstrations, coordinating materials exhibits, and assuming the major responsibility for in-service programs in reading;
6. Serving as a general resource person in reading, recommending professional literature, conducting public information programs, promoting reading in all curriculum areas, and providing specific direction in all teaching activities;
7. Conducting or organizing evening or adult education courses and other specialized classes for reading improvement.

Responsibilities of the Reading Teacher

The specialized *reading teacher* must possess many skills and be very sensitive to the needs and interests of students. Included among the responsibilities of the *reading teacher* are:

1. Aiding in diagnosing reading problems of individuals and classes;
2. Determining corrective measures and procedures;
3. Recommending materials for specific problems or purposes;
4. Implementing the reading program;
5. Working with subject area teachers, librarians, guidance counselors, and supervisors to promote the reading program;
6. Knowing when to ask for specialized help for physical and emotional problems;
7. Informing parents, counselors, administrators, and others of the progress of both the reading program and of the individual student;
8. Serving on the school reading committee.

Responsibilities of the School Librarian

A *librarian* who is genuinely interested in meeting the total educational needs of students is vital to a successful secondary reading program. His concern is easily detected by the inclusion of materials that have varying interest and difficulty levels. He seeks advice from reading specialists, reading teachers, and content area teachers about materials needed in the library collection. The *librarian* can contribute to the reading program by assuming the following responsibilities:

1. Preparing graded bibliographies on special topics for teacher use;
2. Collecting important information on the reading habits and interest of students;

3. Including material of suitable interest and difficulty level for all students in the materials collection;
4. Aiding in the development of a professional library pertinent to the reading program;
5. Providing audio-visual materials related to the reading program;
6. Serving on the school reading committee;
7. Publicizing available reading materials, asking for suggestions for new materials from students and teachers, and creating a pleasant atmosphere in the library;
8. Offering guidance in the selection of reading materials for classes as well as individuals;
9. Conducting workshop sessions that emphasize research and creative, critical, and recreational reading for gifted readers;
10. Stimulating interest in reading through book fairs, exhibits, and reviews;
11. Offering orientation programs on library use, covering all areas of library routine and service;
12. Pre-planning with teachers for special library services and activities;
13. Informing the staff of new materials received in the library.

Responsibilities of the Guidance Counselor

The *guidance counselor* is in a position to see the effect that reading ability has on students' total academic progress. He supports reading programs, realizing how they increase the student's chances for success in school and adult life.

The *guidance counselor* contributes to the reading program through assuming the following responsibilities:

1. Administering the general testing program and interpreting the results to students, teachers and parents;
2. Supporting the reading program through his contact with students, teachers, administrators, parents, and the general public;
3. Identifying educational, physical, and emotional problems which contribute to reading difficulties and referring pertinent information to teachers and appropriate service agencies;
4. Reporting special interests of individual students to reading teachers and librarians;
5. Guiding students to reading materials concerning their vocational and recreational interests;
6. Furnishing reading lists suggested by colleges;
7. Stressing good study habits and encouraging broad reading experiences.

Responsibilities of Subject Area Teachers

Subject area teachers are vital to the success of a reading program. Student performance in any class is largely dependent upon proficiency in reading. In a comprehensive reading program, all teachers are competent to improve reading in their content area. Their responsibilities include:

1. Supporting the philosophy of the school reading program;
2. Evaluating cumulative records of students to determine reading levels;
3. Comparing reading levels of text materials to the reading levels of students;
4. Securing appropriate reading materials and audio-visual aids that will promote growth in reading in each content area;
5. Becoming familiar with basic techniques of teaching reading through in-service training, studying professional literature on reading, and taking recommended courses;
6. Teaching special skills involved in reading subject content material, such as graph and map reading;
7. Stimulating and guiding voluntary reading outside the classroom;
8. Introducing lessons, establishing reading purposes, teaching new vocabulary and concepts, and making meaningful assignments.

Responsibilities of the School Psychologist

Severely retarded readers may be suffering from serious emotional problems. If school systems do not have the services of a *psychologist*, the reading specialist or guidance counselor often refers such students to public, private, or university clinics offering psychological services. The *psychologist* can contribute to the reading program by:

1. Testing students to determine mental capacities and to detect any severe emotional disabilities;
2. Providing necessary counseling services;
3. Consulting with reading personnel and recommending techniques for working with individual students;
4. Continuing to advise teachers during a period of prescribed work with individual students;
5. Furnishing administrators and school boards with convincing information which would lead to establishing more specialized services.

Responsibilities of the School Nurse

Health problems and physical handicaps often contribute to reading problems. The *school nurse* can perform many valuable services in the school reading program by assuming the following responsibilities:

1. Pointing out existing problems noted on school health records;
2. Organizing screening programs to detect visual, hearing, and other physical defects;
3. Providing referral services for students thought to have serious health problems;
4. Visiting homes where health problems seem to be a cause of chronic absenteeism and/or inferior academic performance;
5. Consulting with students, teachers, and parents regarding health status.

Responsibilities of Others

School systems are increasingly able to provide additional services which may benefit the reading program. Some of these services may profit all who participate in the reading program, while others may be used on a referral basis where specific individual problems exist. Additional personnel and services may include the following:

1. *Reading Aides,* whose responsibilities include:
   a. Helping to organize the classroom;
   b. Performing clerical tasks;
   c. Following teacher-planned procedures for groups with special needs;
   d. Checking written material.
2. *Speech and Hearing Specialists,* whose responsibilities include:
   a. Checking speech and auditory acuity;
   b. Recommending procedures to compensate for individual handicaps;
   c. Suggesting corrective measures;
   d. Providing personal assistance and necessary referrals in case of severe problems.
3. *Social Workers,* whose responsibilities include:
   a. Performing visitation services to homes;
   b. Serving as liaison between home and school;
   c. Working to insure fulfillment of the basic needs which affect learning;
   d. Providing referral service to various community agencies;
   e. Acting as agent of the school to help improve attendance.

Responsibilities of Parents

Parents and other interested adults may render services to the reading program as well as reinforce the teaching program. *Parents* may assume the responsibilities of:

1. Providing recommended reading materials in the home for broadening the experiences of their children;
2. Securing recommended reading materials on the proper reading level for their children;
3. Interpreting the reading program to other adults;
4. Supporting expanded reading programs;
5. Forming volunteer teams to conduct vision and hearing testing under the supervision of the school nurse;
6. Transporting students to special referral centers;
7. Assisting with book fairs and other activities which enrich and support the reading program;
8. Arranging programs in local civic and community groups for the school reading program to be explained and publicized.

Selecting and Organizing Reading Programs

It is almost universally accepted that the development of reading skills is a continuous process requiring a higher performance on the secondary level. Unfortunately, many students reach this level without having acquired the necessary reading skills to meet the demands of the school curriculum. Here the student needs to read with greater depth of understanding, to have improved fact-finding techniques, to know how to organize materials and ideas, to be able to evaluate what is read, and to understand how to adjust to different reading situations.[2]

The first step in the organization of the individual school reading program is careful faculty analysis of the school's reading needs. One school may choose to set up a comprehensive all-school developmental reading program; another may decide on a compromise program, which provides specialized reading courses or reading instruction within regular classes in English or combination subjects.

The Comprehensive All-School Developmental Reading Program

The comprehensive all-school developmental reading program affects every student in a school and utilizes the talents of the entire faculty. In organizing such a program, all teachers need to understand the importance of being committed to teaching skills essential to reading and studying in the content areas. In this program *all* teachers make an effort to provide reading instruction for *all* students and to integrate the teaching of reading skills with all other communication skills—listening, speaking, and writing. There is cooperative planning by all teachers so that skills will not be overlooked or overstressed. Adjustments are made in reading materials

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[2] Robert Karlin, "Nature and Scope of Developmental Reading in Secondary Schools," *Developing High School Reading Programs,* compiled by Mildred A. Dawson (Newark, Delaware: I.R.A., 1967), p. 7.

[illegible]26

for slow, average, and superior students. All teachers provide guidance in free reading. Emphasis is placed on the uses of reading as a source of information, as an aid to personal and social development, and as a means of recreation. Provisions for corrective or remedial instruction are made for handicapped readers. This program also provides for continuous evaluation of the uses of reading through a study of the quality and quantity of voluntary reading, the effect on achievement in all subject areas, and the effect on the dropout rate.[3]

If the all-school developmental program is to be effective, each subject area teacher must survey the reading abilities of his students and identify their special reading needs in each subject. A comprehensive survey will include the use of appropriate standardized tests, informal reading inventories, informal measures of study skills, and other evaluation instruments. (See Chapter Four on Testing and Evaluation.) All tests should be carefully selected and administered by competent persons so that the resulting scores will be as accurate as possible. Another helpful device in the identification of student needs is a questionnaire that reveals the reading habits and interests of each student. (See Appendix A.)

When testing is completed, all reading scores should be carefully analyzed and studied. Instruction should then focus on correcting the identified weaknesses in each curriculum area. Essential reading skills and suggested teaching techniques for each subject are found in Chapter Eight. Schools usually find that students make significant progress in many subjects as the result of the comprehensive all-school developmental reading program which involves all departments.

The Compromise Reading Program

If it is not feasible to make all necessary changes for an all-school developmental reading program, a compromise program may be included in the regular curriculum. This program makes special provisions for developmental, corrective, and remedial reading assistance in the regular classroom, in special reading courses, or in other organizational plans. Frequently, compromise programs provide special reading instruction within the regular English or English-social studies class in a double block period taught by one teacher. Some schools and districts have organized a reading center for special reading instruction. The most common type of compromise program, however, is the special reading class for selected individuals. Such classes provide intensive instruction for individuals and groups of students based on identified needs. Generally, these reading classes are courses in developmental, corrective, and remedial reading.

Since many secondary schools offer specialized reading courses as a part of the compromise reading program, the South Carolina State Department of Education has approved two basic reading courses to be offered for unit credit. Other reading courses may be planned and offered for credit by securing permission from the Chief Supervisor of Secondary Education. The two approved reading courses are Developmental Reading I and Remedial Reading I.

Developmental Reading I. This course is designed for one semester for average or better students in grades 9-12 who need to refine or extend their reading skills, tastes, and interests. Preferably, enrollment in this course should be limited to twenty-five students, and there should be some individualized instruction. One-half unit of credit may be offered for this course which meets daily.

Minimum course content should include the following:

1. Appraisal of reading skills: vocabulary, word recognition, comprehension, rate, and study techniques.
2. Enrichment of vocabulary.
3. Review of word perception skills.
4. Refinement of literal, critical, and creative comprehension and thinking skills.
5. Improvement of rate of comprehension and flexibility; development of rapid and elaborate reading, skimming, and scanning skills.
6. Development and refinement of study habits and skills.
7. Development of functional reading-study skills essential to reading content area materials.
8. Development of personal and lifetime reading habits and extended interests and refined tastes.

All skills in this course should be taught from multi-level materials, ranging from average to more challenging reading matter, and from content area textbooks.

Remedial Reading I (Corrective Instruction). This course is designed for the ninth or tenth grade poor reader and underachiever whose reading skills measure one or more years below his grade placement. It is not intended for the student whose capacity is limited or who has severe psychological disabilities. Because this is a course for motivating, learning, and correcting skills, the class size should be limited to ten students to permit highly individualized instruction. A comprehensive screening of students to be enrolled in the course is suggested. One unit of credit may be offered for this two-semester course which meets daily.

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[3] Margaret J. Early, "What Does Research Reveal About Successful Reading Programs?" in *What We Know About High School Reading*, prepared by M. Agnella Gunn, *et al.* (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1957-1958), pp. 7-8.

Minimum course content should include the following:

1. Individual diagnosis of reading skills and habits, vision and hearing, with a continuing evaluation of needs throughout the course.
2. Development of oral language skills and listening comprehension.
3. Development of basic skills in word recognition: sight vocabulary, context clues, phonetic and structural analysis, and dictionary skills.
4. Development of basic comprehension and retention skills: reading to locate main ideas and details, learning to follow a sequence of ideas, drawing conclusions, making inferences, learning to evaluate, organizing and classifying ideas, and the like.
5. Development and refinement of vocabulary skills: sight vocabulary, prefixes, suffixes, root words, word families, concepts, general and specific words from context.
6. Development and improvement of basic study skills: locating information, using parts of books, using reference materials, outlining, summarizing, and notetaking, and the like.
7. Development of oral reading skills and comprehension.
8. Development and improvement of thinking skills.
9. Improvement of reading interests and the development of lifetime reading habits.
10. Development of reading-study skills essential to reading materials in the content subjects.

Materials used to develop skills in this course should be multi-level, high in interest, low in vocabulary, and varied enough to appeal to young people.

Teachers sometimes find a student so severely retarded in reading that no program offered in the school can help him. When this situation exists, the student should be referred to a reading clinic staffed with trained personnel skilled in the diagnosis of problems. Few schools can afford to staff such a clinic, so most schools must depend upon nearby universities for this service.

Reading programs on the secondary level may vary from school to school according to the size of the school, the needs of the students and community, and the skills and interest of the teachers and staff. Whatever type of program is planned, decisions must be made as to how students will be selected for certain classes, how and where classes will be scheduled, and who will teach reading.

Ways to Implement Reading Programs

Successful reading programs can be implemented in many different ways. Each must offer instruction in vocabulary development, comprehension, and the improvement of reading rates and interests. Suggestions for implementation include:

Television Instruction. This plan provides for a large group to receive audio-visual-sensory instruction, which is sometimes more creative through television than is often possible in the classroom. Televised instruction should be limited to approximately 30 minutes with the teacher providing meaningful follow-up on the televised lesson.

Reading Laboratory. The reading laboratory provides an opportunity for individualized learning. Some schools schedule reading laboratory classes during study halls, during an "early bird" period in the morning, or after school. After several months, the student may return to the reading laboratory twice a week for reinforcing his skills.

Curriculum-wide Programs. A schoolwide committee for reading may be appointed with a representative from each department. As an outgrowth of committee study and recommendations, a course of study may be compiled to suit the reading needs of each department. The entire faculty then becomes involved in the program as a basic part of the curriculum.

Full-time Teacher-Consultant. Teachers from various subject departments may be relieved of teaching responsibilities periodically to observe the reading teacher-consultant teach a unit on specific reading skills to a class or group. After the completion of the unit, all teachers should continue to reinforce the skills introduced by the consultant.

Mechanized Projects. These programs depend on mechanical devices such as pacers, accelerators, and reading films. Two or three days a week are devoted to the machines for rate building, and other periods are used for study skills, word analysis, and comprehension techniques.[4]

Reading in the Homeroom. The homeroom teacher is assigned the responsibility of helping students through an extended homeroom period. This plan has the advantage of easy scheduling. Not all teachers, however, are prepared for or interested in teaching reading under such a plan.

Enrichment Units. Reading classes are scheduled on a "wheel plan" with nine or twelve weeks of reading instruction under the supervision of a reading teacher. Classes in music, art, and other subjects should be scheduled for this class period for the remainder of the term.

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[4] *A Guide . . . Reading In The Florida Secondary School.* (Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education, 1966), pp. 34-35.

Special English Period. Students having reading difficulties are placed in special sections of English. One advantage of this method is that no additional class time is required. The disadvantage is that other teachers might consider that they have no further responsibility to teach reading skills in their subject areas. State high school standards permit ninth grade English to be a course built around basic reading instruction for those students who need special help in reading. In these special English classes, the English department should plan the sequence of instruction which follows from the ninth grade into the tenth grade and beyond.

Double Language Arts Period. Some schools schedule language arts for two periods with one period being assigned to reading and study skills. This program is preferred over the single period special English class.

Core Program. When classes such as English and social studies are scheduled for two or three periods a day, it is possible to devote some of this time to teaching reading skills. This plan still remains one of the best patterns in the junior high school for placing reading instruction into the curriculum. Advantages are: (1) the teacher has time to identify the students' basic weaknesses and strengths in reading and language; (2) the teacher's number of subject preparations is reduced; and (3) students have more opportunities to develop wider reading interests and research skills and to adjust to the academic program.

Special Reading Classes. A trained reading teacher can schedule developmental, corrective, and remedial classes for students who need to improve their vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, reading interests, and rates of reading.

Summer Reading Program. Because many secondary students have a full schedule during the regular school year, they are unable to include special reading classes in their programs. Summer reading programs may be offered for these and other students and should include developmental, corrective, and remedial instruction in a plan resembling the clinic or laboratory with a variety of multi-level, multi-skill materials available. The size of the remedial group, if limited to five to eight students, enables the teacher to work with each student individually. The recommended number in the corrective group is eight to ten students, while in the developmental group about fifteen students may be ideal. The summer reading program might be scheduled for six to eight weeks and for a minimum of two hours daily. The following suggestions are offered for developing a summer reading program:

1. *Testing*—A comprehensive testing program should be provided. The main purpose for testing is to obtain reliable information which will help the teacher in placing the student properly and in planning a program with suitable materials and learning activities for each individual student. (See Chapter Four on Testing and Evaluation.)

2. *Activities*—The summer reading program should be organized *daily* around the following activities:

   a. Directed reading activities
   b. Follow-up activities for practice in basic skills
   c. Recreational reading (at least 15 minutes a day for individual reading interests)
   d. Enrichment experiences
      (1) Tours
      (2) Role-playing
      (3) Groups playing reading games
      (4) Oral reading on tape recorder
      (5) Creative work related to reading
      (6) Panel discussions of books
      (7) Scheduled library period directed by a qualified librarian
   e. Opportunities for improving writing and spelling

3. *Sample Summer Reading Program Schedule*—The schedule should include provisions for daily instruction of students and teacher planning, inservice, and conferences. This schedule may be applied to remedial, corrective, and developmental programs.

GROUP I

First Session: 8:30-10:30 A.M.—Reading
10:30-10:45 A.M.—Break (Teachers and students)

GROUP II

Second Session: 10:45-12:45 P.M.—Reading
Afternoon Session: 1:30- 3:00 P.M.—Teacher training Lesson Planning Conferences with teachers, students, and parents

Enrichment courses may be included in the summer reading programs by scheduling the enrichment classes for Group II during the first session; for Group I during the second session.

4. *Financing Summer Reading Programs*—Districts may finance summer reading programs through tuition fees or through federal funds for qualifying schools.

The Reading Classroom—Location, Design, and Equipment

A regular classroom should be assigned to the reading teacher. It should be an average-size classroom, preferably near the library. Adjacent to the classroom, there should be a 10′ x 10′ conference room with a viewing window, so that the instructor can have individual conferences and still observe group work in the classroom.

At least two sections of adjustable shelving should be provided for the reading classroom. Cabinet space is essential for storage purposes. A legal-size file should be provided for filing pupils' records and other materials.

Individual study tables are recommended, but tables around which groups work may be preferred by some teachers. If there is any glare, students should not face the window.

Not more than ten carrels for individual student use are suggested. A screen, electrical outlets, and blinds to darken the room for effective use of audio-visual aids should be provided.

The arrangement of the room should be flexible so that it may be adjusted to teaching needs, whether for groups or individuals. The reading classroom should be attractive and inviting, a friendly place.

In organizing a reading program initially, it may be necessary to compromise for less than ideal space. However, definite space should be assigned to the reading teacher. He should not be a "floater." It is also important that, even in the beginning, basic equipment and materials should be provided.

CHAPTER SIX

Instructional and Organizational Practices

Since school life should be closely related to real life, instructional and organizational practices should develop the unique nature of each student. Whether these practices are accomplished through individualized teaching or grouping procedures, methods must be kept flexible to meet individual needs.

The need for instructional flexibility developed with a belief in the individuality of the learner. One student may learn best in a group where the teacher is quite directive; another may learn more effectively from independent study where the teacher functions in a permissive role. On the other hand, the same student may learn better when shifting from one type of instruction to another as his needs demand.[1]

Research has produced convincing evidence that instructional flexibility based on individual achievement produces better results than any one dimensional approach in a whole class. However, the means of achieving adequate flexibility in instruction has been a problem to many teachers. Perhaps elasticity in instruction poses a problem mainly because the school's program has not provided more opportunity to study the individual student before organizing instructional activities.[2]

Individualized Instruction Practices

Historically, individualized instruction began with the arts of reading and writing. Such instruction was at first responsive to the needs of members of royalty, scribes, historians and people of wealth. As the need for educating the masses became evident, early individualized teaching gave way to group instruction. However, educators of the late nineteenth century claimed that the traditional group instruction failed to meet the reading needs of too many students. Through this type of instruction, students were exposed to common classroom experiences and evaluated by the same academic standards without regard for individual differences.[3]

In the 1920's efforts were made to remedy the weaknesses of traditional group instruction by resorting to ability grouping determined by tests. Each group used instructional materials suited to its needs. It was soon realized, however, that differences in reading abilities and interests were not served by ability group instruction. This fact gave impetus to individualized reading instruction.[4]

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[1] Emerald V. Dechant, *Improving the Teaching of Reading* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 211.

[2] Harry W. Sartain, "Applications of Research to the Problem of Instructional Flexibility," *Progress and Promise in Reading Instruction—A Report of the Twenty-Second Annual Conference and Course on Reading* (Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: University of Pittsburgh, July 5-15, 1966), pp. 97, 105.

[3] Helen M. Robinson, ed., *Reading Instruction in Various Patterns of Grouping, Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading at the University of Chicago*, XXI (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959), p. 14.

[4] *Ibid.*

As practiced today, the individualized approach represents an attempt to overcome inadequacies of both traditional group instruction and ability grouping. Individualized reading instruction does not eliminate all group aspects, however. Belief in the individuality of the learner makes group as well as individualized approaches useful. Individualized activities may show, for example, that a group of students has some similar reading problems. To resolve these problems, the teacher may plan small group or even whole class activities based on special skills needs. In addition, students in the individualized program may be grouped, on occasions, for special interests and for an audience reading or a discussion situation.

An individualized reading program may be multiple in approaches. It can be effective with students of all reading levels, and it calls for an abundance of multi-level materials. Increasingly, this approach is being used in secondary reading programs.

The individualized approach today may be defined as:

1. An adjustment of reading conditions to the individual needs of the student;
2. A planned use of the principles of self-selection and pacing to provide the student a setting which arouses interest, helps improve his reading skills, and allows him to progress at his own rate;[5]
3. A multiple approach with the teacher's methods relating to individual needs;
4. A procedure which allows each student to work in his chosen area of reading, unaffected by the differences of other students or the use of a single textbook; and
5. Another dimension of viewing the world and the individual's place in it.[6]

The following means of individualizing reading are considered pertinent to a secondary reading program:[7]

Pacing — an approach allowing students to advance at individual rates through a sequence of personally selected materials

1. Evaluation of pertinent exercises by the teacher or student following the completion of phases of paced reading
    a. The teacher's use of conference periods to determine the student's ability to understand and interpret what he reads
    b. The teacher's subsequent plans providing follow-up activities to deal with student's difficulties
2. Testing when the student reaches certain goals in the pacing approach

Programmed instruction—an approach utilizing self-explanatory or self-teaching programmed materials in textbook and machine format intended for use by individual students without special assistance from a teacher

1. A program characterized by a step-by-step presentation of a series of skills and problems varying in difficulty
2. Characteristic features of good programmed instruction include:[8]
    a. Lesson content presented in small segments to which the student gives his answer
    b. Correct responses immediately presented so that student soon knows if his reaction is or is not accurate, and often learns why a given answer is the best one
    c. The best rate for the student adjusted by him
    d. Lesson segments sequentially organized
    e. Lesson objectives clearly specified and given to easy evaluation
    f. Reading levels specifically indicated
    g. Instructional materials revised, with characteristics of group in which revisions were made being named for teacher's convenience
    h. Evidence of achievement available, with the extent of an indicated group's learning on a named test included
    i. Complete description of programs, providing the teacher with information needed for choosing the program activities best suited to student's needs
3. Programmed materials recommended as supplementary aids for reading instruction because of the extensive range in content and appropriate grade level

Free reading—an approach based on unlimited individual choice of reading materials or choice within topical limits with activities following a planned sequence, such as:[9]

1. Choosing a book or a selection to read
2. Reading the chosen book
3. Conferring individually with the teacher on reading done and reading selected sections to the teacher

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[5] George D. Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963), p. 150.

[6] Jerry L. Walker, "Conducting an Individualized Reading Program in High School," *Journal of Reading,* VIII (April, 1965), p. 295.

[7] Charles Elmlinger and Melvin Holland, *Unit One: Individualized Instruction—An Overview* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., October 1, 1967), pp. 9-11.

[8] Edward Fry, "Programmed Instruction in Reading," *The Reading Teacher,* VII (March, 1964), p. 453.

[9] Elmlinger and Holland, *op cit.*

4. Sharing the book with the class or a group in the class
5. Using skill-building materials to remedy reading weaknesses found during teacher-student conferences
6. Working with the teacher, and perhaps with other students who need similar help, in mastering a particular skill

The individualized reading program may involve the following:[10]

1. Keeping descriptive and diagnostic information on the student as a part of his record.
2. Knowing each student's physical condition, academic history, socio-economic background, interests, and aptitudes.
3. Using this information to organize meaningful individual instruction related to specific reading needs and interests.
4. Having on hand reading materials suited to student's achievement and potential levels.
5. Providing individualization when using one textbook through adjusting the reading sequence, differentiating the nature of preparation for reading, giving attention to rate of coverage, and differentiating follow-up and evaluation activities.
6. Evaluating progress periodically and keeping accurate records of skills growth and development; work completed; existing weaknesses, difficulties, attitudes, and interests; and course revisions.

Advantages of the individualized approach include:[11]

1. An opportunity for the teacher to know each student's needs and abilities and to provide for the wide range of reading abilities.
2. A greater influence on each student through the teacher's being available when needed.
3. The program's responsiveness to the individual student's reading needs and its complete provisions for individual differences.
4. The resultant self-initiated, wide reading which leads to interest, enjoyment, and appreciation for reading on the part of the student.
5. Improved self-concepts and favorable attitudes toward school.
6. A sounder instructional program because of the presentation of skills only as needed, the provision for access to a wide reading vocabulary, the promotion of independent thinking, and the development of appreciation and tastes for reading.

Disadvantages inherent in the individualized approach include:

1. Many teachers' lack of the needed efficiency, flexibility, and creativity for individualizing reading.
2. The teacher's confidence and feeling of security threatened by a new procedure and by unfamiliarity with an adequate number of books.
3. Inability to provide adequately for all students, especially exceptional learners.
4. The lack of enough appropriate reading materials, which may hinder effective individualized instruction.
5. The problem of evaluating progress as it relates to assigning grades.

Individualized Instruction for Disadvantaged Youth[12]

Adolescents who have been deprived of cultural and educational experiences common to youth from middle and upper middle class homes often need special instruction and personal attention. Individualized reading instruction builds self-concepts and provides development in skills from pre-reading to more advanced levels. Although individualized methods used in teaching these youth need not differ radically from those used in teaching other students, procedures and materials to give immediate meaning and use often necessitate adjustments.

Many disadvantaged adolescents have failed to master reading skills in the elementary grades. Their language patterns and habits are often unlike those used in school. Their verbal communication is somewhat limited. Inattentiveness and immature listening and observing habits also characterize the disadvantaged. With a verbal intelligence sometimes lower than their performance intelligence, which is often average, these adolescents have poor self-concepts because of continuous frustration in their attempts to succeed in school.

Suggested Diagnostic Procedures. If appropriate individualized instruction is to be provided for disadvantaged adolescents, the teacher must have adequate diagnostic information about each of these students. Since standardized tests tend to frustrate them and deepen their sense of failure, informal teacher-made tests that give immediately useful information are recommended. Effective diagnostic information may be formulated from informal tests if their content has meaning relative to the students' environment and experiental background. For example, handicapped readers and even non-readers may be given their names, home addresses, names of subjects they take, their school's name, titles of popular songs, and familiar road signs to read as a part of an informal diagnostic test. Others may be given paragraphs to read from an easy publication such as *Know Your World* or *My Weekly Reader*. More advanced readers may be given a short selection from graded materials to read silently and to answer questions on facts, inferences, vocabulary, the main idea, and important details. Reading skills deficiencies can be ascertained also through a teacher-student discussion and appraisal of the answers given.

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[10] Walker, *op cit.*, pp. 292-293, 295.

[11] Spache, *op cit.*, pp. 154-155.

[12] Ruth Strang, "Teaching Reading to the Culturally Disadvantaged in Secondary Schools," *Journal of Reading*, X (May, 1967), pp. 527-534.

Help with Word Recognition Skills. The varied degrees of educational difficulties of the culturally disadvantaged adolescent may show a pronounced need for giving individualized instruction in developing vocabulary and basic word recognition skills. It may prove beneficial for students and teachers to make vocabulary cards with the whole word and its accented and unaccented syllabic division on one side and a definition of the word and an illustrative sentence on the other side. Frequent review of words so recorded can improve vocabulary growth.

When an adolescent experiences serious difficulty in remembering words, the kinesthetic method may be used individually if carefully introduced by a perceptive teacher. Demonstration by the teacher of looking at the word written in large letters on a card, pronouncing it, and tracing it with the finger may cause favorable reactions and encourage meaningful participation on the student's part. The next step is close teacher observation to see that the student traces the word correctly until he feels that he knows it. Writing the word correctly several times without looking at the word card means that the student may add the word to his list of learned words. Repeating the finger tracing process and writing the word correctly several times following an error should be followed consistently if this approach is used.

Word recognition skills may also be taught with meaningful exercises on context clues, stressing meanings that are easily grasped because of a given definition, synonym, or a summary. (See the explanation of context clues in Chapter Seven, "Basic Reading Skills.") A student may be encouraged to write sentences with similar context clues or to bring in sentences with such clues for classmates to identify. Sentences giving no clues to word meaning can be studied next to show that other methods of word recognition are necessary. A study of structural analysis, phonics, and the dictionary will therefore be meaningful.

Aids for Sentence and Paragraph Comprehension. Restricted verbal communication of the disadvantaged adolescent requires special emphasis on sentence building. Exercises that encourage students to use their imagination and to choose appropriate words and phrases to describe what they see in an interesting picture may be a good beginning. Sentences chosen by the class to describe an event or activity may be used to develop a story which may be mimeographed for the class to read. Proficiency in paragraph reading and comprehension can result from practice in constructing clear paragraphs and in studying various kinds of paragraphs and their structure in self-selected materials. (See the section on comprehension in Chapter Eight, "Basic Reading Skills.") Discussion by the student of his methods of locating the main idea and repeated practice in paragraph reading with the teacher may further advance proficiency in reading comprehension.

Improving Oral Language. Conscious planning for the inclusion of oral language activities in the reading program is essential to providing the stimuli which disadvantaged students have missed. Activities that give students opportunities to describe and discuss pictures, personal experiences, or anything that promotes meaningful discussion and description might be included. Original or collected paragraphs, poems, or dialogue may be used in choral speaking activities, with the teacher first demonstrating effective oral reading and language. Paragraphs from current publications individually selected may be used to integrate oral reading and language and paragraph comprehension skills. Each student should read his paragraph to himself and then to the class, identify the topic sentence or main idea, and indicate the phrases that tell *who, what, when, where, why,* and *how.*

Instructional Materials. Materials for individualized instruction for the disadvantaged adolescent should be highly varied, plentiful, and geared to their interests. Disadvantaged students should be given constant guidance in selecting their own instructional reading materials from both classroom and library collections. Individualized instruction using these materials should then be paced according to their abilities and needs.

Organizational Practices

Individualized reading instruction is an ideal plan. Not all schools or teachers, however, can implement this plan effectively. Consequently, many schools have used various organizational patterns of grouping students within the school and individual classrooms to enable teachers to work more effectively with larger numbers of students yet still provide for individual differences. The grouping of students for reading skills instruction should not be considered a method of teaching reading, but rather a technique of organizing to facilitate effective teaching of the above average, the average, the below average, the reluctant, and the disadvantaged. An effective reading program demands various types of grouping, always based on student needs and achievement.[13]

Some administrators, teachers, and supervisors question the wisdom of grouping, especially at the secondary level, and debate the type to be used. Regardless of the type of grouping used, the plan must be flexible. To plan for the most effective type of grouping, teachers and administrators must use the combined results of intelligence tests, reading achievement tests, teacher-constructed tests, previous academic records, teacher observation, and teacher evaluation through the grades.

Homogeneous Grouping

Some schools use such common factors as intelligence test scores, reading achievement test scores, scholastic achievement, and teacher observation as a basis for forming more nearly homogeneous groups in reading and the subject areas. Students are placed in above average, average, or below average sections determined by the above factors. Instruction and materials in such an organizational plan are usually adapted to the needs and abilities of the students. Many authorities strongly recommend that the total group within these homogeneous sections be further divided into several smaller instructional subgroups within the classroom to provide for varying reading levels and highly individualized needs.

Strang, McCullough, and Traxler state that homogeneous grouping is very difficult or even impossible to achieve. Classes in some large schools, however, are often grouped according to reading ability, but the term "homogeneous" is often inaccurate to describe these groups since students who achieve similar reading test scores may differ widely in specific reading abilities and skills as well as in other respects.[14]

There are both advantages and disadvantages of homogeneous grouping. The widest claimed advantage appears to be that teachers can provide more adequate instructional experiences for a group that seems to be fairly close in ability and instructional needs.[15] Disadvantages often claimed include:

1. Many schools lack teachers who are trained in homogeneous grouping techniques or willing to cope with such grouping practices.
2. Some principals and teachers believe that this type of grouping encourages dropouts.
3. Some parents, teachers, and students think that there is a stigma attached to a particular group.
4. There is disagreement as to how students should be evaluated in homogeneous groups.

Heterogeneous Grouping

Heterogeneous grouping places students who differ physically, mentally, and emotionally into the same section. While no two students are alike, they often have certain characteristics in common. Since reading levels and abilities are generally divergent, there is a pronounced need for subgrouping within a heterogeneous section to meet individual needs.[16]

The most widely claimed advantage of heterogeneous grouping is that students of all levels and abilities learn to work together and learn from each other. Disadvantages most often claimed are:

1. An atmosphere of challenge is often lacking in a heterogeneous group.
2. Inadequately trained and inexperienced teachers find it difficult to experience success with this group.
3. Teachers often use single-level rather than multi-level instructional materials in a heterogeneous group to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of this group.
4. Evaluation of a heterogeneous group is very difficult.

Regardless of whichever type of grouping is used, reading and subject area teachers will find it necessary to organize flexible subgroups within the classroom based on special needs, reading abilities and levels, and individual interests.

Intra-Class Grouping

In recent years intra-class grouping has been practiced increasingly in secondary schools. Intra-class grouping, the practice of forming several instructional groups within the classroom, may be organized on the basis of the students' instructional levels and their specific reading weaknesses. The number of instructional groups within a class should be governed by the teacher's ability to organize and teach several groups. Usually instruction proceeds more smoothly in classrooms where intra-class grouping is used. However, quality instruction should never be sacrificed for the sake of organizing several intra-class groups. Grouping itself does not guarantee good teaching or effective learning and is successful only when the teacher can make it work.[17]

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[13] Robert Karlin, *Teaching Reading in High School* (New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1964), p. 249.

[14] Ruth Strang, Constance M. McCullough, and Arthur E. Traxler, *The Improvement of Reading* (4th ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957), p. 44.

[15] Ruth Strang, Constance M. McCullough, and Arthur E. Traxler, *The Improvement of Reading* (3rd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961), p. 73.

[16] *Ibid.*

Strang, McCullough, and Traxler[18] describe six types of intra-class grouping useful for individualizing instruction in both reading and subject area classes at all grade levels.

Achievement grouping is the first type. It is a plan through which a teacher can meet the reading needs of each student more proficiently. This plan of forming several groups within the classroom is based on the level and needs of the students and the difficulty of the material. The material must be easy enough for the student to feel comfortable yet difficult enough to present a challenge. To determine the reading level of the material needed, the teacher may use the student's past reading records and previous teachers' evaluations of the student's reading difficulties.

Research grouping is done when two or more students are interested enough in a certain subject that they desire to read more about it. The students read widely, work together organizing material, and share their information with the entire class by orally reporting their findings. Research reading is valuable because of the rich experiences in wide reading, in organizing material, and in oral reporting to the class. Another advantage is that many levels of achievers can be brought together. The more able readers may assist the weaker readers in acquiring research information.

Interest grouping may suggest the same type of grouping as research, but it is not necessarily the same thing. Interest grouping is more inspired and motivated by the teacher. The subjects selected for wide reading may be more varied. Reading done in interest groups tends to be recreational and improves fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Wide reading by interested students cultivates a love for reading and develops an enjoyment in reading. Interest grouping encourages students to develop the lifetime reading habit.

Special needs grouping is often done to help students from various achievement groups to master a skill that was not learned when it was presented in the developmental reading groups. There are two uses of this kind of grouping. First, students in the lowest reading achievement group may be studying a skill that a few students in the higher reading groups have not learned. Students in the latter groups are taken from their respective groups and instructed with the lowest group until they are proficient in the skill. In a second use, students deficient in certain skills in each group are placed together in a "new" group for the specific purpose of helping them master these skills. Special needs grouping has a skills development connotation, and these students are moved about in special groups for the specific purpose of mastering skills. When this objective is attained, the special needs groups are dissolved.

Team grouping is used when two students can profit from working together on a common task. Some students gain confidence and are more highly motivated when they can work on an assignment together. In successful team work, there must be a definite purpose and each student must know exactly what is expected. Each must consider this type of work a special privilege and know that the privilege will be taken away if there is too much play. The teacher should receive some concrete evidence of the work done: an outline, a written report, a composition, or the like.

Tutorial grouping is used when one proficient student helps one or more students who need help and want to learn. This type of grouping is sometimes called "team learning." The teacher must make definite assignments for the team to perform and should expect some concrete proof that the tasks were achieved.

Inter-Class Grouping

Inter-class grouping is a plan used for meeting the common needs of students of several sections and involves several teachers. This type of organization is well adapted for departmentalized teaching, such as in the junior high school. Grades as such disappear. Students of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades meet at the same period for reading instruction. Seventh graders may meet with ninth graders, eighth graders with seventh, and the like. Each student meets with the group that is being taught on his instructional reading level. The more teachers participating, the narrower the range of reading levels and the more individualized becomes the instruction.[19] If needed, further grouping within each group is recommended.

Grouping and the Culturally Disadvantaged

The plight of the culturally disadvantaged student is often more keenly evident in the secondary school than in previous grades. These students often become dropouts or are identified as slow learners or students who cannot learn. Yet many of these students are very capable. Their limitations relate more often to their restricted environment and cultural backgrounds than to their intelligence.

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[17] Karlin, *op. cit.*, pp. 249-250.

[18] Strang, McCullough, and Traxler, 3rd ed., *op. cit.*, pp. 213-219.

[19] Karlin, *op. cit.*, pp. 256-257.

Attempting to organize special reading programs for these students, some schools have placed them in heterogeneous groups; others, in homogeneous groups. Too few schools have then organized flexible intra-class groups to meet the needs of these students.

Basically, grouping practices in reading for these students should differ very little from those for advantaged students. More individualized and intra-class group instruction and less total group instruction in reading and the subject areas should be provided for the disadvantaged. A smaller class size and flexible intra-class grouping may provide a more successful instructional program if the teacher is alert to characteristics of culturally disadvantaged students, perceptive to needs, and sensitive to ways to stimulate learning. The culturally disadvantaged student must receive individual instructional attention, and should be provided the opportunity to learn from students who come from advantaged backgrounds.

Motivational Practices

The belief that if the student can be motivated he will be eager to learn is not always shared by those teachers who feel that motivation is an internal reaction. It is an accepted fact, though, that the student's interest is heightened if he is well-motivated. In turn, "interest will determine not only whether an individual will learn to read but also how well he will read, and in what areas he will read."[20]

Because today's reader is confronted with a greater demand to read more highly complex materials, he must possess more refined reading skills, and he must develop an abiding interest in reading.

With the increased demands for reading in the secondary school, a variety of motivational practices must be employed by teachers. These motivational activities may be used as both points of departure and end products. The student must learn to read to satisfy certain needs, but through repetition of reading activities, enjoyment and interest are stimulated. Reading then becomes a habit and often motivates other activities.

If motivation practices are used effectively by teachers, students will be exposed to experiences through which a respect for thorough study, prolonged inquiry, and continued interest will be developed and fundamental attitudes established.[21] They will also acquire a respect for knowing facts or having an option about a subject. Tasting the satisfaction of gathering information and feeling adequately informed on a subject will enhance appreciation and attitude. As a result, these students will be on the way to becoming readers who continue to read newspapers and magazines to be informed and to increase their personal competence.

Usually effective motivation results in greater interest of the student; therefore, the degree of this reading interest will be only in direct proportion to the extent to which the reader is involved with that which he is reading. It then becomes necessary to determine the students' reading interests and provide conditions to facilitate them.

Students' reading interests can be ascertained by numerous inventories prepared either commercially or by teachers. Interests may also be investigated directly through checklists of book titles or classified interests, lists of books that students have recently read and enjoyed, records of library withdrawals, interviews, and questionnaires. (See Chapter Nine, "Developing the Reading Interests and Habits of Secondary Students.")

There are various practices which teachers may find helpful for motivating students to want to read. One of the most useful and meaningful practices is the development of *personal and class experience charts or stories,* records of interesting activities in which students have engaged. Charts or stories can be used effectively with poor readers. Experiences may be written on chart paper or typed as they are told by the students. Generally, these charts or stories are effective because they capitalize on the most potent factor—interest. These charts may be used as a means of extending sight vocabulary or introducing new vocabulary. Each day a sentence or two may be taught. Words which the student cannot recognize may be taught by using flash cards or structural or phonetic analysis.

Since the greater the intrinsic need, the greater the success and pleasure gained, other activities may also appeal to the practical experiences that students encounter. For instance, the use of travel pamphlets, telephone directories, atlases, road maps, and advertisements may motivate students to learn the skills of skimming, following directions, drawing conclusions and making inferences. For terminal students and boys who are planning to enter the Armed Services, the skills of reading to get the main idea and to get details may be taught by using pamphlets or catalogues describing job opportunities and requirements from civil service agencies, employment bureaus, and the Armed Forces. Also, the class may be divided into groups of three or four students. Each group may be given the task of charting a trip by car to a particular place. Students with the best reading abilities may be given the task of writing very simple directions. Students with the lowest reading abilities may be given the task of dictating the route. Help should be given to each group in recognizing the words used in the directions and in refining understanding of those words.

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[20] H. Alan Robinson, ed., *Meeting Individual Differences in Reading,* Vol. XXVI (Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 54.

[21] Roma Gans, *Common Sense in Teaching Reading* (New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1963), pp. 242-243.

Expressive activities such as dramatizations, monologues, oral reading by the teacher or student, puppet shows, pantomimes, and socio-dramas serve as means of sharing books read and of motivating other students to read. (See Appendix E.)

Audio-visual techniques are among the most effective means to create a desire to read. Hence, a teacher should provide a classroom which includes either posters or quotations about reading, pictures of authors and people enthusiastically engaging in reading, and a colorful display of book jackets, magazines, paperbacks, educational comics, and pamphlets. Slides and filmstrips as well as tapes and records may be used.

Reinforcing and broadening reading skills and interests must be an end product of any type of motivation. Organizing reading clubs, book fairs, and a classroom library facilitates reinforcement and provides an outlet for interests discovered through reading.

Motivating Culturally Disadvantaged Students

A first step in motivating culturally disadvantaged students to read is to help them understand that they can learn to read. Confidence in themselves as learners as well as in their teachers must be fostered. "The teacher of the culturally different child must help him know emotionally as well as intellectually that there resides in him deep reservoirs of ability, even genius, that he habitually fails to use until he can master enough desire to ignite the energy that is latent within him." [22]

These culturally disadvantaged individuals must also see not just the practical but the immediate importance of reading. Hence, teachers must provide materials of immediate interest to them; materials centered on the vocational and practical problems which these students face will prove invaluable in motivating interest in reading.

Basic Instructional Activities for Reading

Learning is an active, perceptual process resulting in new ideas, concepts, and organization and is facilitated by the development of basic reading skills. Reading to learn, then, should involve four steps: recognition, understanding, reaction, and integration. Whenever the reader integrates what he is reading, he is studying. This is the ultimate in comprehension.[23] If learning is to take place, teachers of reading must provide adequately for the planning, selecting, and guiding of meaningful instructional activities for learning.

Three Basic Instructional Activities

Three basic instructional activities should be included in secondary reading programs. The first which should be used daily with any reading material is the *directed reading activity*. It leads to the development of new understandings, skills, and appreciations and is composed of five stages, each of which includes specific teaching activities.[24]

Stage 1: *Readiness*
  1. Prepare students for a full appreciation of what is to be read.
  2. Stimulate interest of students by varied means.
  3. Develop working concepts.
  4. Identify for students the reasons for reading.
  5. Develop the vocabulary and reading skills needed.

Stage 2: *Silent Reading*
  1. Assist students in getting the main ideas, identifying sequence of events or ideas, and understanding meaning from context.
  2. Help students to answer questions, to prove beliefs, to discover likenesses and differences in characters and to identify situations.

Stage 3: *Vocabulary and Comprehension Development*
  1. Discuss problems in vocabulary and comprehension encountered in previous stages.
  2. Prepare the students for next stage.

Stage 4: *Rereading*
  1. Promote rereading either orally or silently to confirm ideas, to share information, or to develop facility in reading.

Stage 5: *Follow-up*
  1. Develop organizational skills.
  2. Promote independent and effective study habits.

The second basic instructional activity which should be used by all teachers is the *follow-up activity*. A continuous follow-up of the students' reading skills and interests is essential, as the ultimate goal of reading instruction is growth not only in reading but through reading. Through a planned follow-up activity, three purposes are achieved:

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[22] Earl Nightingale, "On Motivating the Disadvantaged Child," *Vital Speeches*, Vol. 33 (October 15, 1966), pp. 18-24.

[23] Dechant, *op. cit.*, p. 375.

[24] Emmett Albert Betts, *Foundations of Reading Instruction* (New York: American Book Company, 1957), p. 491.

1. Students' interests and experiences are broadened and cultivated.
2. Students' facility in using books and other materials is developed.
3. Students' effective independent study habits are developed.[25]

Activities which may be used in follow-up may be classified as creative activities, study activities, extended reading activities, and reading games. These activities should not fail to recognize the nature and the needs of the learner and the kind of world which influences his interests and efforts.

The third basic instructional activity is *recreational reading*. Instruction in reading should develop independent and interested readers as well as skillful readers. Hence, emphasis on study or "close" type of reading should also be accompanied by systematic guidance of the student's recreational reading. Today, the latter emphasis is especially necessary because students have more leisure than ever before, and they have increased means by which to buy books, provided their interests are whetted. If recreational reading is to be a highly desirable activity, the following principles should be observed:

1. Students should be permitted to follow their own interests.
2. Students should be turned loose in the library or a book store to browse.
3. Students should be allowed to choose their reading and encouraged to make out individual reading lists for the year.
4. Students should receive help in planning a balanced daily reading program.
5. Books should be brought to students' attention.
6. A variety of reading materials should be provided for the students.
7. Students should be taught how to evaluate books which they read.
8. Students should be encouraged to share their reading in many creative ways.

Specific activities to extend interests and to promote recreational reading are provided in Chapter Nine.

Other Basic Instructional Activities

Other useful instructional activities include listening and speaking activities; skills game activities; writing and spelling improvement activities; use of the tape recorder, "Language Master," filmstrips, films, pictures, and realia; and activities to develop study techniques, such as the SQ3R study method presented in Chapter Seven. Mechanical reading devices, such as tachistoscopes and pacers, might be used to a limited extent for motivation and refinement of skills. When used, these devices should be carefully introduced to the small team or individual who will work with them. The use of a mechanical device with an entire class group as a basic instructional activity is generally unwise and is highly discouraged.

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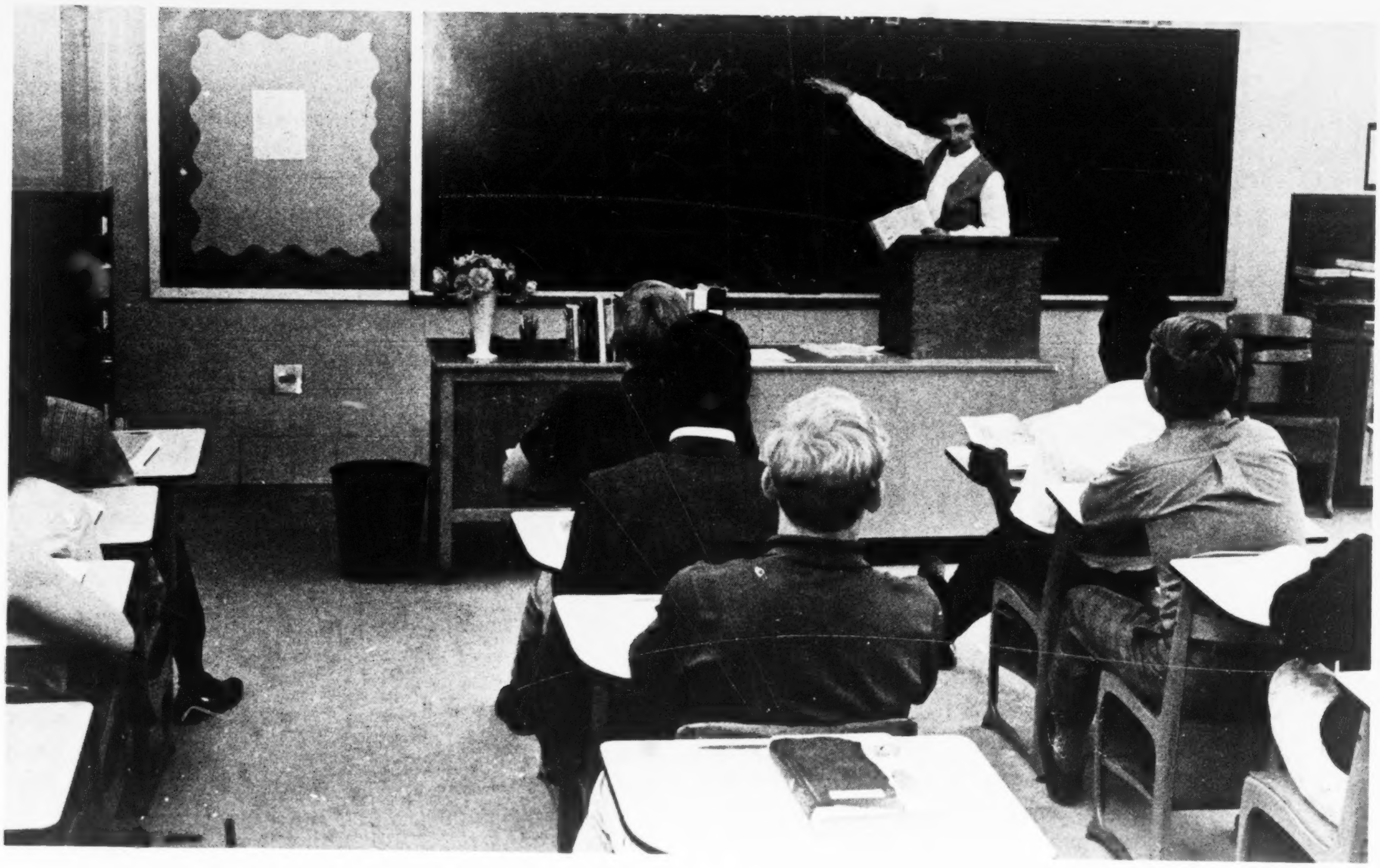
[25] *Ibid.*, p. 517.



CHAPTER SEVEN

Basic Reading Skills

Basic reading skills must be taught and refined in secondary schools today. To develop these skills efficiently and effectively, a continuous, systematic, and planned program of instruction must be provided for each student. Such a program provides basic help in the skills of word recognition and vocabulary development, comprehension, critical and creative reading, study skills, and rates of reading comprehension. While various reading authorities list over one hundred basic reading skills, Marksheffel cites twelve basic skills essential for effective and versatile reading in secondary subject-matter areas. The secondary student should have:

"1. An adequate sight-vocabulary of the most common words in English
2. Word recognition and pronunciation skills
3. The ability to use a dictionary independently and successfully
4. The ability to follow written and oral directions
5. An understanding of the meaning of a large number of vocabulary words
6. The ability to get meaning from what is read
7. The ability to organize mentally and to outline material so that he can recall and use it when needed
8. Some knowledge of how to establish purposes for his reading
9. The ability to adjust speed of reading according to his own experience, and to determine the reasons for his difficulty in the material he is reading, and his purposes for reading it
10. The ability to use the index, table of contents, glossary, and author's clues found in a textbook
11. A knowledge of when to use additional reference materials
12. The ability to use the library and its reference materials" [1]

Many of these basic skills will have been introduced in the elementary school. However, complete mastery of these and other essential skills should not be expected as a student enters the secondary school. Only through continued use, teaching, and reteaching of these skills can mastery be expected. Mastery is dependent upon maturity in reading and language and a broad experiential background.

The broadening of experiential backgrounds has been emphasized during the elementary school years. Therefore, the secondary school tends to rely heavily on developing understandings, skills, and appreciations through vicarious experiences. While this is limited by the range of materials studied and strict scheduling, it is important that subject content be enlivened by helping the student to become personally involved in learning both the content and skills. A wide range of experiences builds a background of understandings that gives meaning to printed materials and expands the potential of the student's final achievement in basic reading skills.

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[1] Ned D. Marksheffel, *Better Reading in the Secondary School* (copyright © 1966, The Ronald Press Company, New York), pp. 84-85. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

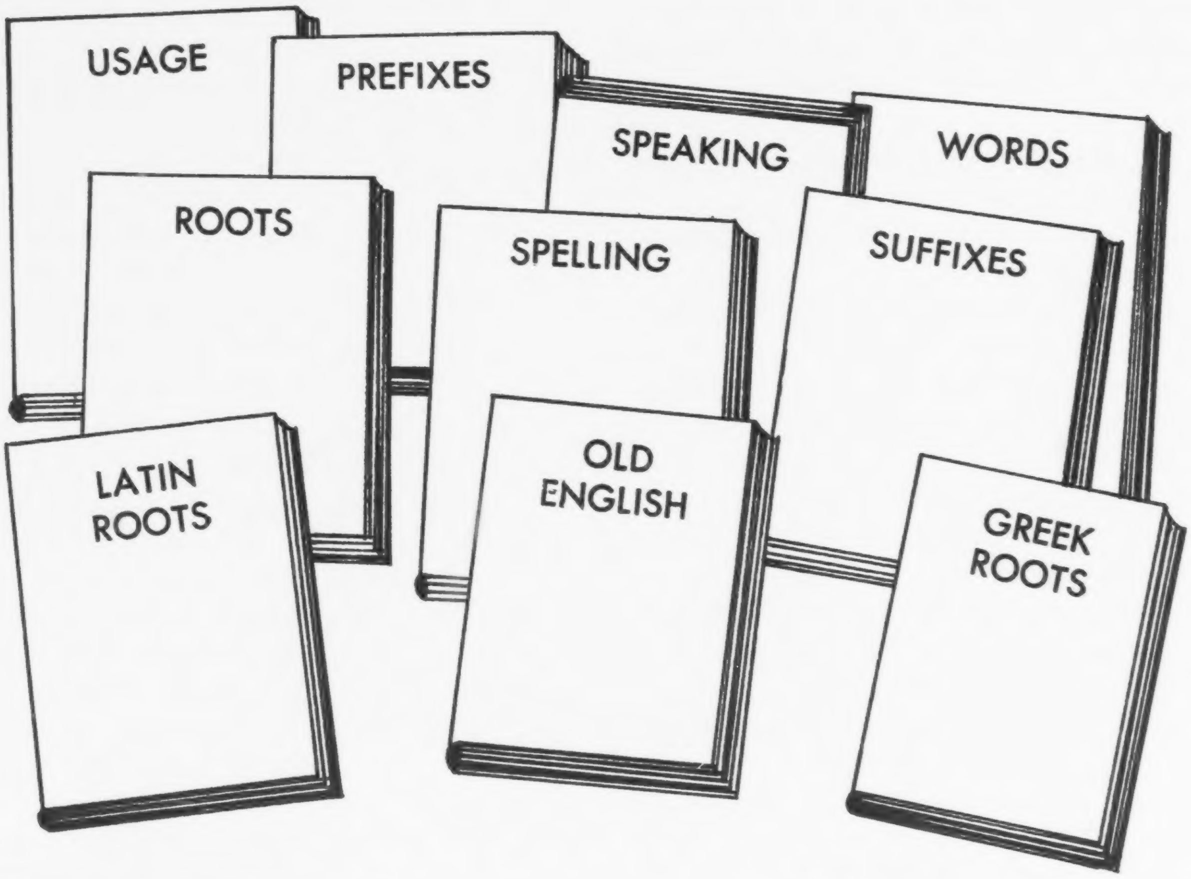
Many enriching activities to broaden experiential backgrounds can be provided within the regular classroom as a part of teaching the basic skills. A class studying the Shakespearean period may benefit not only from reading his works but from viewing movies of Shakespeare's plays, constructing scale models of his theatres, building dioramas of Elizabethan life, and completing other activities relating to Shakespeare's time.

Mathematics is made more comprehensible by studying three-dimensional geometric models, gigantic number-lines, and enlarged slide-rules which can be seen by a whole class. Imperative also are practical experiences in putting mathematics knowledge to work: computing the size and engineering the hanging of stage drops for the school auditorium; measuring and cutting draperies for the audio-visual room; practicing filling out income tax and banking forms in transacting personal business; and arranging to buy a motorcycle on term payments.

Science classes become more meaningful through laboratory investigations, allowing the students to work as scientists work to uncover basic principles. The building of models of molecules and cells provides students three-dimensional perception that is difficult to achieve solely with diagrams and pictures.

It is highly important to include exploratory visits to broaden experiences and increase background knowledge as a basis for developing basic reading skills and understandings. A trip to a courthouse may necessitate flexible scheduling but would provide a realistic impression of local government. All subjects would benefit by imaginative well-planned trips to provide background understandings essential to basic skills development.

The following skills must be developed in the secondary school. If the skills are new to the student, they should be introduced carefully in reading and content area materials. If the skills are known but not mastered, they must be reinforced with sound teaching practices and a variety of activities. Recommended teaching activities for some skills are indicated by the treasure chest symbol. The individual teacher should expand these activities through the use of a wide variety of materials and his own creative teaching ideas.



Vocabulary Development and Word Perception Skills

The four types of vocabularies are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Before a student is ready to read, he must acquire listening and speaking vocabularies which usually develop early in life. During childhood, the individual listens to and uses familiar sounds in sentences. When he begins to read, he associates meaning with the printed symbols. Usually in this stage of reading instruction, he learns words from pictures and other clues by seeing the whole word as it is symbolized in the picture. The student is building a basic sight vocabulary.

As he acquires this sight vocabulary, he learns to use these words in composition and spelling, developing a writing vocabulary. A meaningful and extensive vocabulary emerges from the use of all the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Developing vocabulary must begin with learning to identify words and relating experiences to these words in order to understand their meanings. It is essential to follow a sequential program of instruction to develop meaningful vocabularies for contemporary life. Such a program includes the following:

I. Evaluating vocabulary knowledge through discussions and testing (See Chapter Four).

II. Developing a background of meaningful experiences essential to expanding vocabulary knowledge

    A. Field trips
    B. Visual teaching materials
    C. Story telling
    D. Oral reports
    E. Oral reading
    F. Informal conversation
    G. Listening activities
    H. Dramatics

A class may be taken on a field trip to the courthouse or archives building. Before going on the trip, informal conversations may be employed to create interest, and the teacher may make a list of things the students should observe. Upon their return, students might give oral and written reports of their experiences to develop an understanding of new words and concepts met during the field trip.

III. Providing opportunities for wide reading to build and enrich vocabulary

    A. Supplying materials geared to the student's reading ability and interests
    B. Giving instruction in special vocabularies of the content fields
    C. Providing free reading time

Students should have time to read materials of their choice during class time. The materials should be discussed with an emphasis on new words and concepts.

IV. Providing instruction in phonetic analysis—associating sounds with the printed symbols
   A. Consonants: speech sounds of consonant letters
      1. Initial consonant: the beginning consonant letter of a word
      2. Final consonant: the ending consonant letter of a word
      3. Medial consonant: the middle consonant of a word
      4. Consonant blend: two or more consonants blended to produce one sound. Example: *bl, str*
      5. Consonant digraphs: two letters which represent one sound. Example: *sh, ch, gh* (rough), *ng* (sing)
      6. Silent consonants: one or more consonant letters that are not heard in a word. Example: *gh* (sigh)
   B. Vowels: the speech sounds of *a, e, i, o, u* and sometimes *w* and *y*
      1. Long vowels: sounds that are like the alphabetic pronunciation
      2. Short vowels: sounds that are unlike the alphabetic pronunciation
      3. Sound of *y* as a vowel: long and short
      4. Other vowel sounds: sounds influenced by *r, w*, and *l*
      5. Vowel digraphs: two vowels producing one sound. Example str*ai*ght
      6. Diphthongs: two sounds blended so closely that they form a compound sound. Example: *oi*l

Consonants: Have students pronounce lists of prepared words that begin with consonants, end with consonants, and have consonants in the middle of the word.

Blends and Digraphs: Teach blends and digraphs by singling out the pattern in words. Then call out words containing the blends or digraphs and have students write down the letters that make the sound.

Vowels: In the early stages of recognizing differences between long and short vowels, the student may find that if he learns a small word that contains the vowel being studied he may be able to remember the same sound when he meets it again.

V. Improving vocabulary growth through structural analysis—the means by which a student identifies meaningful parts of words
   A. Syllabication: dividing words into syllables, parts, or units
      1. Principles of syllabication (to be taught inductively)
         a. All words have at least one syllable, and every syllable has a sounded vowel.
         b. When there are two consonants between two sounded vowels, the division usually comes between the two consonants. Example: *sum mer*
         c. When there is one consonant between two vowels, the division is usually before the consonant. Example: *ho tel*
         d. In a word ending in "le" preceded by a consonant, the division is before the preceding consonant. Example: *ta ble.* Exception: words that end in *-ckle* ("pickle" group) are divided before the *-le* because the *c* is silent and the *k* goes with the first syllable. Example: *tack le*
         e. The final *-ed* in a word is usually another syllable if the *-ed* is added to a word that ends in *t* or *d.*
         f. Suffixes generally form another syllable. Example: *hunt er*
         g. Compound words are divided between the two words.
         h. Certain letter combinations, such as consonant blends, consonant digraphs, vowel digraphs, and diphthongs, are so close that they cannot be separated in syllable division.
      2. Kinds of syllables
         a. Open syllables: syllables that end in a vowel sound. Example: *ho tel*
         b. Closed syllables: syllables that end in a consonant sound. Example: *sum mer*
   B. Root words: basic word components which may have prefixes and/or suffixes added to form a word
   C. Derived forms: root words with prefixes and/or suffixes added
      1. Prefixes: beginning syllables which change the meaning of words
      2. Suffixes: common last syllables which change the functions of words
   D. A basic list of prefixes and roots: a key to 100,000 words of unabridged dictionary size[2]

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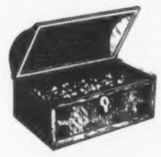
[2] James I. Brown, *Programmed Vocabulary* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964), pp. 5-6. Reprinted by permission of the author and publisher.

Words	*Prefix*	*Common Meaning*	*Root*	*Common Meaning*
precept	pre-	(before)	capere	(take, seize)
detain	de-	(away, down)	tenere	(hold, have)
intermittent	inter-	(between, among)	mittere	(send)
offer	ob-	(against)	ferre	(bear, carry)
insist	in-	(into)	stare	(stand)
monograph	mono-	(alone)	grapheim	(write)
epilogue	epi-	(upon)	legein	(say, study of)
aspect	ad-	(to, towards)	specere	(see)
uncomplicated	un-	(not)		
	com-	(together, with)	plicare	(fold)
nonextended	non-	(not)	tendere	(stretch)
	ex-	(out, beyond)		
reproduction	re-	(back, again)	ducere	(lead)
	pro-	(forward, for)		
indisposed	in-	(not)	ponere	(put, place)
	dis-	(apart, not)		
oversufficient	over-	(above)	facere	(make, do)
	sub-	(under)		
mistranscribe	mis-	(wrong)	scribere	(write)
	trans-	(across, beyond)		



Extensive lists for teaching basic prefixes, suffixes, and root words are found in *Word Attack* by Clyde Roberts, published by Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

VI. Improving vocabulary through a knowledge and use of context clues, one of the most important aids to word meaning

A. Types of context clues

1. *Definition:* an unknown word defined in the passage. Example: Because of the coach's *succinct* explanation, the entire team understood the solution to the problem.
2. *Experience:* Students may rely upon their past concrete experiences to supply the meaning of the new word. Example: The rains lasted for many days. On the fourth day I could hardly see the river banks. They were almost *inundated.*
3. *Comparison or contrast:* The unknown word may be compared or contrasted with something known. Example: Staggering in his *inebriation,* he broke the spell of sainthood that was characteristic of all three generations of vestrymen.
4. *Synonym:* This type of clue consists of a known synonym for the unfamiliar word. Example: The mangled car was scattered along the busy thoroughfare, an *impediment* to all southbound traffic.
5. *Familiar expressions:* This clue requires a knowledge of common expressions or idioms which may be anticipated easily before they are completed by the speaker. Example: The unexpected winner of the one mile race *sped full tilt* against the wind during the last exciting seconds.
6. *Summary:* In this clue the new word may summarize the ideas that precede it. Example: At the age of seventy, the golfer was still very skillful. He seldom missed a chance to putt on the green nearby. For a man of his age, he was very *agile.*
7. *Reflection of a mood or situation:* The general tone of the sentence or paragraph sometimes suggests a clue to the new word. Example: The aroma from the grey building floated across the veranda of the old Georgian home. The *delectable* sensation instantly pleased the secluded couple as they sat admiring their purchase.

B. Uses of context clues

1. Aid to word perception
2. Aid to word meanings and comprehension

VII. Teaching skills to extend and enrich vocabularies

A. Using alphabetical order
B. Dividing the dictionary into thirds so that a student becomes familiar with the sections
C. Locating an entry word
D. Adapting the definition of an unfamiliar word to the context
E. Using pronunciation symbols on unfamiliar words
F. Studying the etymology of words
G. Studying qualifying words
H. Studying the connotations and denotations of words
I. Studying synonyms and the like

VIII. Providing cumulative word lists to extend vocabulary
  A. Using content area materials to teach specific kinds of words
  B. Gleaning words from class discussions
  C. Finding and learning functional words in everyday activities
  D. Studying words that are real or fictional, such as the following from an unknown source:
    1. Galvanize — coat with zinc
    2. Martinet — strict disciplinarian
    3. Mausoleum — a large tomb
    4. Maverick — independent individual who does not conform with his group
    5. Thespian — actor
    6. Pasteurize — partial sterilization of a substance at a temperature that destroys objectionable organisms without major change
    7. Quixotic — idealistic to an impractical degree
    8. Jeremiad — prolonged lamentation or complaint
  E. Learning words derived from myths and legends, such as the following from an unknown source:
    1. Promethean — resembling Prometheus, who, according to legend, stole fire from heaven as a gift to man
    2. Chimerical — unreal
    3. Mentor — trusted councilor or guide
    4. Mercurial — having qualities of eloquence, ingenuity or thievishness
    5. Calliope — Greek Muse of eloquence and heroic poetry
    6. Odyssey — a long wandering marked by many changes of fortune
    7. Olympian — lofty
    8. Stentorian — extremely loud
    9. Protean — variable
    10. Stoic — indifferent to pleasure or pain
  F. Learning words which have been borrowed and are frequently used, such as the following:[3]

1. alter ego	trusted friend or second self
2. apex	uppermost point
3. argot	underworld language
4. automaton	self-operating
5. badinage	playful repartee
6. bon vivant	refined tastes in food and drink
7. bourgeoisie	neither rich nor poor
8. cabal	secretly determined to overthrow one's government
9. fiat	authorization
10. claque	paid applauders
11. cognomen	distinguishing nickname or surname
12. concordant	meeting to discuss ecclesiastical matters
13. con brio	vigorously
14. demise	death
15. denouement	final outcome
16. collossus	giant
17. dossier	bundle of papers containing important information
18. eclat	brilliance
19. ennui	weariness
20. facade	outward appearance of an entrance or front
21. faux pas	social blunder
22. fiasco	failure
23. genre	kind
24. hauteur	haughtiness
25. hoi polloi	general masses
26. ad infinitum	endlessly
27. ad libitum	in accordance with one's wishes
28. a priori	snap, sudden
29. au courant	up to date
30. de facto	exercising power as if legally constituted
31. gauche	lacking social graces
32. incognito	disguised
33. insouciant	lighthearted concern
34. jejune	dull
35. largess	innate generosity
36. macabre	death
37. parvenu	one who has acquired wealth but not social graces
38. malaise	ill health
39. melange	mixture
40. mestizo	person of mixed blood

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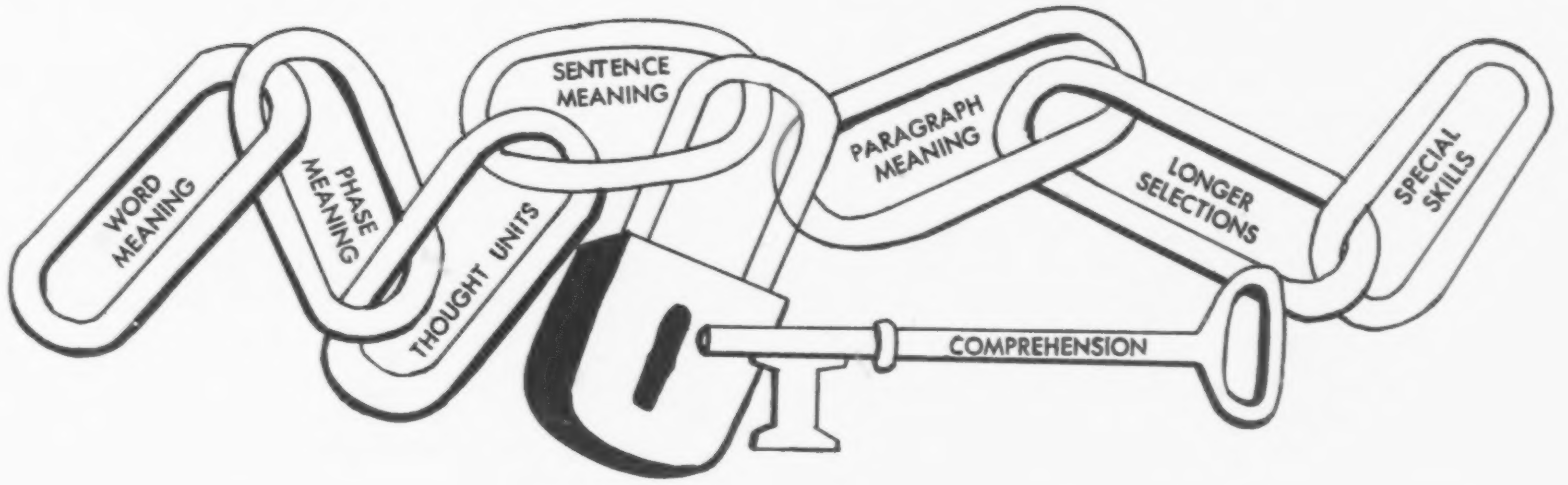
[3] Borrowed words reprinted from *Harbrace Vocabulary Workshop* by Paul Sweitzer and Donald U. Lee. Copyright © 1957 by Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc. Reprinted with permission from the publisher.



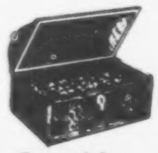
Comprehension Skills

Instruction for developing comprehension, the ability to understand and interpret what is read, involves a coordination of all language communication skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing, and thinking) into an integrated sequential program. A coordination of these communication skills depends largely on an adequate experiential background which aids in bringing meaning to and getting meaning from the printed page.

The initial step in the comprehension process is the association of an experience with a given symbol. Complete meaning, however, is not conveyed by understanding a word, the most elemental but absolutely necessary form for comprehension. The proficient reader interprets words in their contextual setting. Words have meaning for him as parts of sentences, sentences as parts of paragraphs, and paragraphs as parts of longer selections.[4]

Comprehension skills that help the student move from the simple, basic level to the more sophisticated level are included in this section. Comprehension abilities that require further development at the secondary level may vary from the primary stages for the seriously retarded reader to the advanced approaches for the college preparatory student.[5]

I. Development of reading comprehension involves
   A. Word meanings: associating experiences and meaning with the graphic symbol
      1. Verbal connotations and denotations
      2. Sensory images (visual, auditory, tactile, gustatory, olfactory) suggested by words
      3. Contextual meanings and clues
         a. Definition
         b. Experience
         c. Comparison and contrast
         d. Synonyms
         e. Familiar expression
         f. Summary
         g. Reflection of a mood or situation
   B. Phrase meanings: expressions that mean more than the sum of the individual words each contains
      1. Idiomatic expressions
      2. Figurative expressions



Have students give synonyms for a collected list of idioms. (Examples: a *root* of evil, to come *across* the right book, *big shot, hard-headed*).

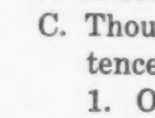
Provide opportunities for learning and explaining the various figures of speech. Examples: He is a *tiger* in battle. (metaphor)

Do you prefer Robert Frost or Carl Sandburg? (metonymn)

Scornful *Pride* crushed her benefactor. (personification)

He outran the fastest race car. (hyperbole)

   C. Thought units: grouping words in a sentence into meaningful phrases
      1. Oral activities: conversation and discussion
      2. Written activities: selected samples from texts, other books, and original sentences
      3. Follow-up activities: independent practices



Write a sentence first in the usual way, and then write it as a good reader would read it in thought units. Have students read both sentences. Then have students construct sentences to be read in thought units by others, followed by discussion of the phrasing done after the reading of each sentence. Continue activities in thought phrasing with sentences from various sources.[6]

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[4] Emerald Dechant, *Improving the Teaching of Reading* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 363.

[5] Lawrence Carrillo, *Unit IV: Planning a Schoolwide Reading Program,* Reading Institute Extension Service (Chicago: Science Research Associates, January 15, 1963), p. 6.

D. Sentence meaning: understanding and interpreting language patterns
   1. Word order
   2. Key words
   3. Grammatical inflections signaling tense, number, and possession
   4. Kinds of sentences
   5. Identification of facts: Who or What? What happened? Where? When? Why or How?
   6. Punctuation

Have students study the interrelationship of parts of each sentence which present comprehension difficulty.

(a) Study the thought of sentences in which subject and verb, separated by a number of qualifying ideas or modifiers, are in the natural and inverted order; and then construct similar kinds of sentences.

(b) Discuss the ways relationships are expressed by words such as *if, and, but, although;* then complete sentences constructed as follows: "They will comply with the request if . . . and . . . but . . . although . . . however . . . after . . ."[7]

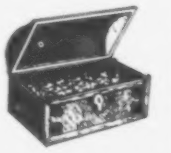
(c) Explain the relationship of various inflectional endings—*s, es, 's, ed, ing*—to the meaning of the sentence.

(d) Identify sentences as statements, as questions, as introductory, transitional, and concluding thoughts.

(e) Look for words in the sentence that tell *who or what, what happened, where, when, how,* and *why.*

(f) Punctuate logically sentences not already punctuated to show how punctuation affects meaning.

E. Paragraph meaning: group of related sentences; small structural units of a longer composition
   1. Identification of topic sentence or sentences which best summarize the main idea of a paragraph
   2. Identification of relevant and irrelevant details
   3. Use of details to identify or formulate the main idea
   4. Recognition of patterns the writer uses to develop a paragraph[8]
      a. *Question-answer:* plainly stated or implied question that is answered
      b. *Repetition:* statement of main idea more than once in different words
      c. *Conclusion-proof:* creation of belief in author's conclusion by supplying facts to support that conclusion
      d. *Opinion-reason:* author's opinion as a main idea with subjective support for this opinion
      e. *Problem-solution:* a complication followed by a resolution of the complication
      f. *Fusion of details:* description
      g. *Comparison and contrast:* parallel ideas
      h. *Events in time sequence:* chronological order
      i. *Systematic organization of related details:* bringing together facts related in some way, as by logical kinship, time, space, or association
   5. Observation and use of varied thought relationships in paragraphs
      a. Chronological relationship
      b. Simple listing of ideas
      c. Comparison-contrast
      d. Cause-effect



Provide a series of well written, variously developed paragraphs for students to analyze for the following purposes: (1) to name the sentence, part of the sentence, or the sentences which express the main idea; (2) to indicate which way each sentence supports the main idea—if it tells why or how, proves the main idea, or gives further support to the main idea; (3) to decide what pattern the author used to develop each paragraph; (4) to recognize and state the topic for each paragraph.

F. Longer selections: articles, chapters, books, and *belles-lettres* (prose fiction, poetry, drama)
   1. Studying the title to consider what it means; the chapter headings to consider what questions may be discussed
   2. Understanding the interrelationships between various types of paragraphs in a selection

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[6] Olive Stafford Niles, *et al., Guidebook for Tactics in Reading I* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1961), pp. 76-77.

[7] Walter Loban, Margaret Ryan, and James Squire, *Teaching Language and Literature* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1961), p. 239.

[8] Stella S. Center, *The Art of Book Reading* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1952), pp. 25-47.

    a. Noting linking expressions, as transitional words or phrases, a repetitious word or idea from a previous paragraph
    b. Recognizing the main thought of each paragraph
    c. Interpreting the relationship of details to the central idea
    d. Grasping the central thought of the selection
    e. Applying ideas and integrating them with past experiences
  3. Recognizing the essential characteristics of different kinds of writing[9]
    a. Factual compositions: utilitarian or moral
    b. Literary works: products of the creative imagination
      (1) The central idea: the conflict, the goal, or the author's purpose
      (2) The pattern: organization, framework, or design
      (3) The mood: the emotional atmosphere
      (4) The style: the approach, the rhythm, or sound in poetry or prose that establishes rapport of reader and author
      (5) The validity of the work: its value

II. The use of a variety of special comprehension abilities includes

  A. Reading for specific purposes and to retain information
  B. Developing organization skills (See "Study Skills.")
    1. Following directions
    2. Classifying things, ideas, words
    3. Using organization keys — headings, marginal notes to get main ideas, and the like
    4. Sensing relationships
    5. Establishing a sequence
    6. Summarizing and generalizing
    7. Outlining
    8. Taking notes
  C. Reading to interpret
    1. Main ideas
    2. Knowledge of drawing inferences
    3. Prediction of outcomes
    4. Formation of opinions
    5. Recognition of the general and the specific
    6. Perception of analogous situations and ideas
  D. Reading to evaluate (See "Critical and Creative Reading.")
  E. Reading for appreciation
    1. Recognizing story plots
    2. Analyzing character
    3. Sensing humor
    4. Recognizing motives
    5. Reacting to mood

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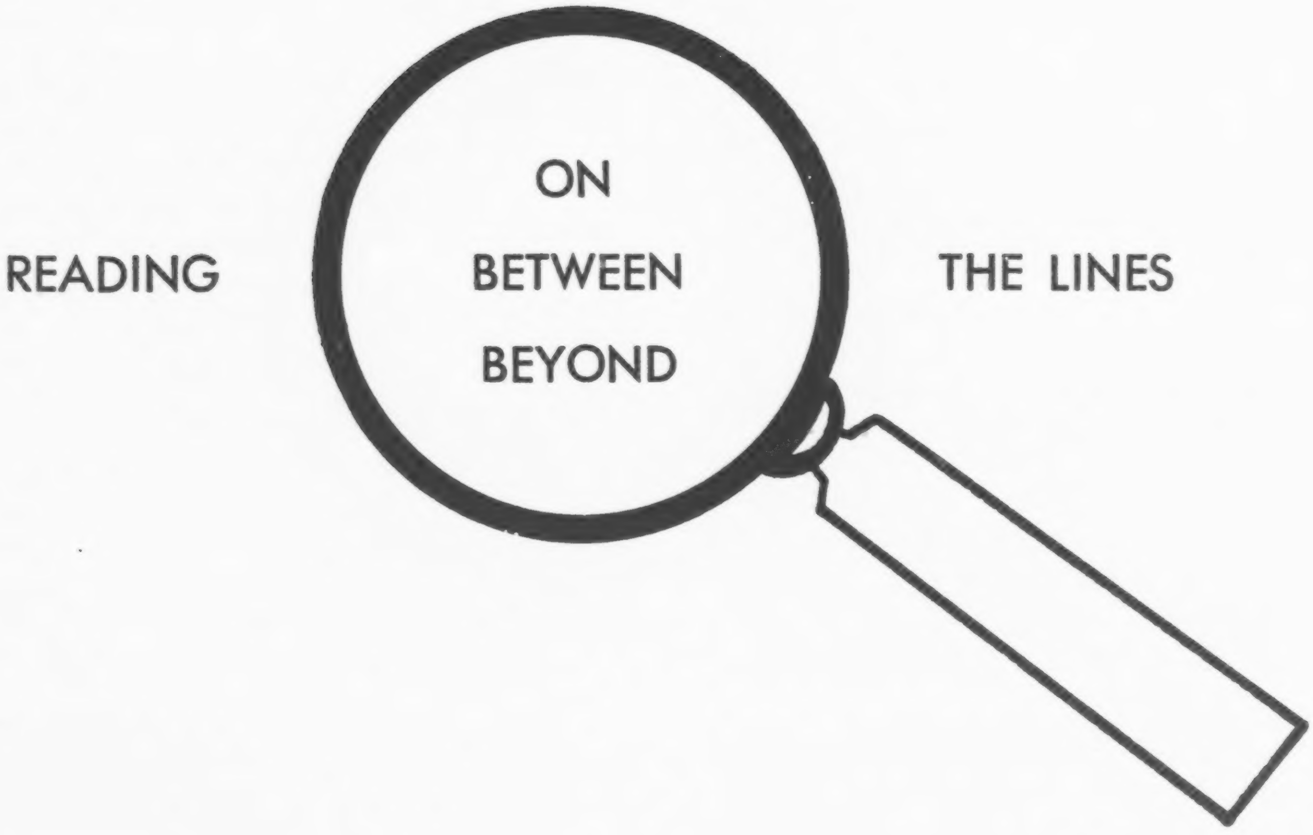
[9] *Ibid.*, pp. 124, 175.



Critical and Creative Reading Skills

Critical and creative reading do not just happen, but evolve from a continuous emphasis on *why* something is said, as well as *what* is said. This inquiry develops inferential thinking. Meaning cannot be established for each student until careful study has been made of the author, his purpose, and his vocabulary; and the denotations and connotations of the selection have been totally analyzed.

As society grows more complex, critical thinking becomes more essential for survival. An independent thinker is the product of intelligence, experiences, skills, and concepts in varying degrees, all of which are involved in reaching the highest level of comprehension—critical and creative thinking. Distinguishing between fact and fiction, determining points of value, and discerning propaganda are all necessary in today's world. Learning to think critically is a vital part of the educative process. Therefore, the teacher's task is to find better ways of teaching critical reading by laying the foundation in a sequential pattern of development of all reading skills, especially those of comprehension.

I. Sequential pattern of critical and creative reading and thinking
  A. Student responsibilities
    1. Understanding abilities
       Using results from a standardized reading test, informal reading inventory, and the like, explain fully to each student his strengths and weaknesses in comprehension. Help him plan objectives for himself and feel encouraged to work for improvement in the higher skills of thinking.
    2. Responsive listening
       Give periodic listening tests. Select a paragraph one reading level above the instructional level and read it to the class. Follow immediately with questions of vocabulary, fact, and inference.
    3. Keen observation
       Describe a person, place, object, or situation in as many ways as possible. Use a thesaurus.
    4. Sensitive questioning
       Students could read a brief article from *U. S. News and World Report,* then compose and answer questions of fact—who? what? and when? Then they should compose and answer questions of interpretation — how? and why? — which stimulate critical thinking.
    5. Complete analyzation
       Research a topic such as "county taxes" and outline the problems discovered.
    6. Determined validity

Debate a topic such as "Cut Taxes Versus Raise Taxes."

7. Objective selection

   Conduct a mock vote on a referendum concerning "county taxes."

8. Positive substantiation

   Each student might write a position paper, expanding his personal reasons for arriving at a specific conclusion which he deems worthy of the test of time. Following the sequence of suggestions 5, 6, and 7 above, the topic might be "Our County Taxes."

9. Systematic integration

   Require a design for a follow-up activity, such as "An Assembly Program," "Letter to the Editor of the Newspaper," or "Drafting a Petition."

B. Teacher responsibilities

1. For perceptual awareness

   a. Through sensory impressions

      Have students read samples of outstanding sensory impressions from literature, such as *John Brown's Body* by Stephen Vincent Benét. Write lists of descriptive phrases to incorporate in discussions or compositions.

   b. Through emotional involvement

      Have students cite instances of emotional involvement found in *Look Homeward, Angel* or *The Yearling*. Follow this with each student's reading of a book listed in *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*. Compare findings.

   c. Through likenesses and differences

      Have students compare two poems such as "Chicago" by Carl Sandburg and "Mannahatta" by Walt Whitman. Point out similarities and differences. Another assignment might involve comparisons of tragic characters and villains, humor and comedy, or recorded dialects.

   d. Through identification of situations

      Have students trace the plot of a science fiction short story or a mystery. Develop the sequence of events in outline form. Edgar Allen Poe's *Tell Tale Heart* or Arthur Clarke's *Expedition to Earth* might be used.

2. For creative application

   a. Through meaningful relationships

      Using two biographies, compare the theme of "hardship and courage." Support understandings by listing direct and indirect experiences.

   b. Through broadening concepts

      Read selected quotations that define differently a word such as *love, happiness,* or *security*. Relate these to personal definitions.

   c. Through identifying ideas

      Many stories, such as *Heart of Darkness* by Joseph Conrad, embody hidden meanings. Lead a discussion of one of these stories read by the entire class.

   d. Through making generalizations

      List details of a story or article and formulate a one-sentence generalization based on these.

   e. Through selecting abstractions

      Enumerate items that fall into categories such as edible, negotiable, or tranquil that may appear in a selection. Define words such as *courage, reactionary,* and *patriotism*.

II. Implementation of critical and creative reading skills

A. Preparation

This period prepares the class for learning to think critically. Students establish rapport with other students as well as with the teacher. Active participation in sharing ideas and experiences and acceptance of differences of opinions must be constantly practiced.

1. Determination of purpose

   Explore these questions: Why are critical thinkers needed? What jobs demand critical evaluation? How does one learn critical evaluation? How does one think critically when confronted with a controversial issue?

2. Evaluation of materials

   Select a variety of materials of a wide range of interests, including texts from social science, pure science, literature (especially essays and poetry), speeches, religious writings, and newspaper and magazine articles. Discuss sections or articles, evaluating the competence of the author, the logic of his reasoning, and the accuracy of the data.

3. Application to needs

   Each critical reading skill should be used as needed. For example, any of the materials mentioned above might be outlined, summarized, discussed in depth, researched, dramatized, or compared. A panel discussion or a symposium might follow small group sessions centered around one of them.

B. Procedure
   1. Identify problems.
   2. Formulate adequate questions.
   3. Acknowledge lack of information.
   4. Select sources of fact.
   5. Determine relevancy.
   6. Recognize differences of opinion.
   7. Arrive at conclusions.
   8. Summarize findings.
   9. Revise hypothesis.

   After each item under "Procedure" has been studied separately, the entire spectrum may be incorporated into a series of directed reading activities until each student understands the total evaluation of a selection. A Junior Great Books Discussion group would also prove valuable.

C. Techniques
   1. Skimming for generalizations
   2. Scanning for specifics
   3. Studying for various purposes
   4. Examining for discrimination
   5. Evaluating for refinement

   Each technique should be covered as needed. Practice in each technique is necessary for all students and the practice should match the need as it arises.

III. Higher levels of critical and creative reading

A. Determination of reliability and validity of ideas
   1. Distinguishing between fact and fiction
   2. Investigating the authenticity of material
   3. Recognizing propaganda techniques
   4. Detecting oversimplifications (positive statements, proverbs, rhetorical questions)
   5. Discerning bias and prejudice
   6. Realizing differences in point of view
   7. Judging completeness of analysis

   Discuss *Hidden Persuaders* by Vance Packard. Collect cartoons that reflect "bias and prejudice." Display ads that show "scientific slant." Keep a record of "rationalizations" heard. List "band-wagon" appeals. Analyze headlines for "card-stacking."

B. Rewards of evaluative reading
   1. Appreciation for the printed word
   2. Increased scope of learning
   3. Well-rounded personality
   4. Individuality of outlook
   5. Definite position
   6. Usefulness to society
   7. Enjoyment of life

IV. Obstacles to critical reading

A. Use of a single textbook in a subject

B. Literal reading of printed matter

C. Avoidance of controversial topics

D. Adherence to conformity

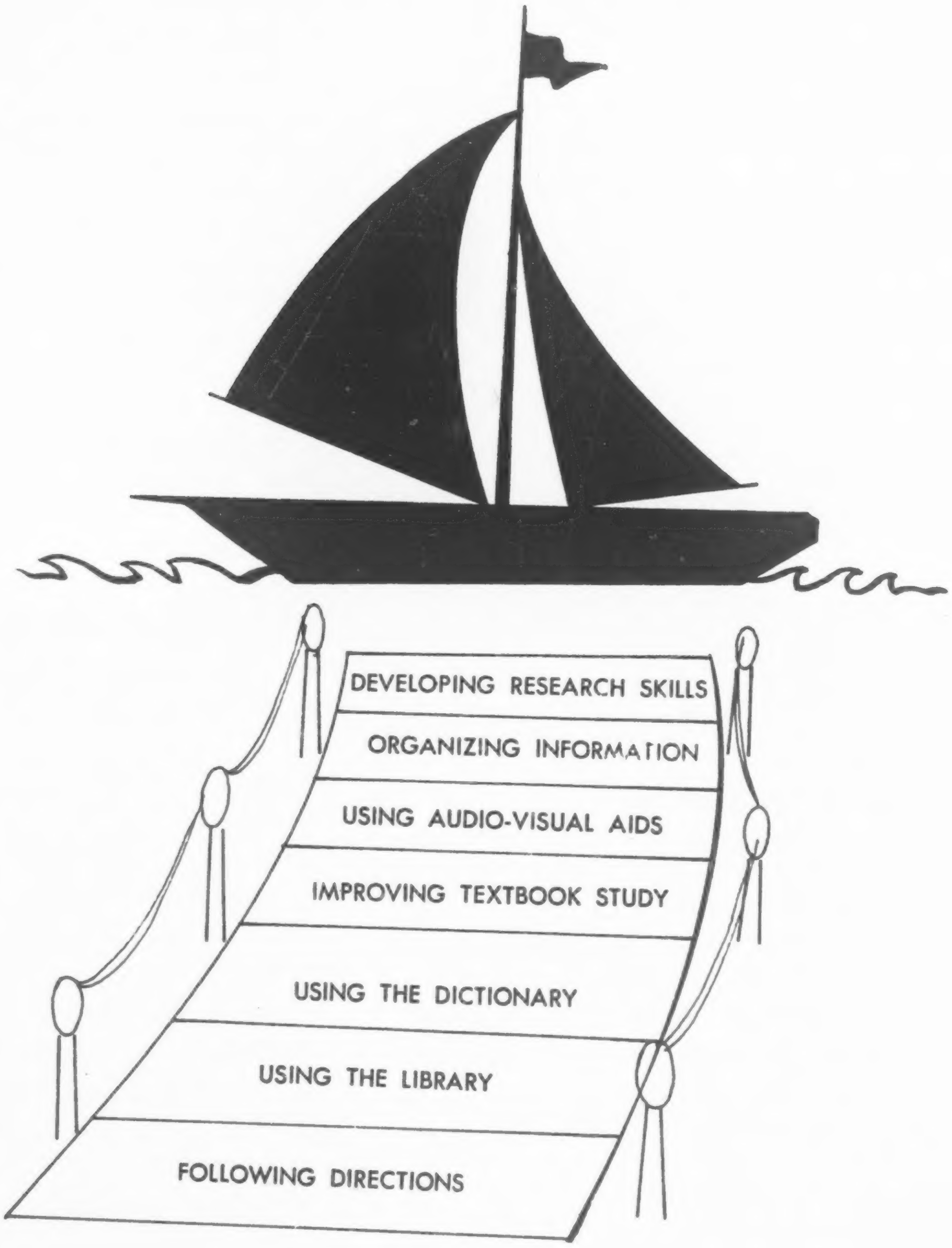
E. Involvement with distractions

F. Complexity of reading process

G. Lack of refined evaluative instruments

H. Insufficient research

STUDY SKILLS FOR SMOOTH SAILING


DEVELOPING RESEARCH SKILLS
ORGANIZING INFORMATION
USING AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS
IMPROVING TEXTBOOK STUDY
USING THE DICTIONARY
USING THE LIBRARY
FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS

Study Skills

Even though students are required to spend many hours each week in preparing their assignments, not all students are trained to use study skills that will help them in their school work. According to Spache, a great many reading difficulties of secondary pupils may be due to inadequate training in the study skills.[10]

In the learning of the study skills, differences in capacity among students have been recognized. The teacher must start the student where he can learn and progress as far as he can go. It is suggested that these skills be taught as the need arises and as they are applicable to a task which is assigned to the class.

Prior to teaching any study skills, an informal diagnosis or inventory should be made of the various skills, using subject area textbooks and reference materials. An informal inventory for these skills is recommended in Chapter Four.

Before undertaking research problems, students must know how to use the important sources of information. If their research is to show scholarly achievement, students must be instructed in how to acquire knowledge in their subject and how to present their material.

Study skills involve:

I. Following directions
  A. Oral directions
  B. Written directions

If students have difficulty following directions, give them simple oral and written directions each day and gradually increase the difficulty of the activities to be followed.

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[10] George D. Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963), p. 334.

II. Using the library
A. Organization of the library
1. Location of specific materials
2. The Dewey Decimal System

Make a transparency reproduction of the school library to use in explaining its arrangement. Have students fill in an outline form of the library with proper identifications. Have them keep this form in their notebooks for future reference.

B. Materials in the library
1. The card catalogue
2. Reference materials
a. *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*
b. Encyclopedias
c. Indexes
d. Unabridged dictionaries
e. Atlases, almanacs, and other reference materials
3. Multi-media materials

C. Library guidelines for teachers[11]
1. Become familiar with your school library.
2. Read appropriate new additions so as to be in a better position to guide students.
3. Keep school librarian informed of major projects so that she may provide materials for your needs.
4. Work cooperatively with your librarian.
5. Help librarian with book lists.
6. Invite the librarian to visit the class for previewing new materials, holding instructional sessions, and correlating class library activities.
7. Vary methods of sharing reading experiences. (See Appendix E, "Creative Ways to Share Books.")

III. Using the dictionary
(See "Vocabulary" section.)

IV. Improving textbook study
A. Knowledge of parts of a textbook
1. Spine
2. Title Page
3. Author
4. Copyright Date
5. Table of Contents
6. Preface
7. Body
8. Glossary
9. Appendix
10. Bibliography
11. Index

B. Knowledge of ways to read and study textbook chapters and pictorial and graphic aids

Use a textbook for teaching the parts of a book. After important parts of a book have been discussed, give an open book test involving the use of the parts of the book listed above.

Teach students how to read and study a chapter. Give special attention to bold face headings (subtopics), introductory statements, illustrations, graphic aids, the summary, and chapter questions.

Teach students to apply the SQ3R technique to textbook study.

V. Using audio-visual aids
A. Media to learn to use
1. Maps
2. Graphs
3. Charts
4. Tables
5. Diagrams
6. Cartoons
7. Transparencies
8. Tape recorder
9. Films
10. Filmstrips and slides
11. Television and radio
12. Microfilm

B. Activities and aids to use to develop skills
1. Maps—In map reading the student needs to know the meanings of *gulf, bay, equator, earth, distance, scale, latitude, longitude, sphere, hemisphere, pole, key inset,* as well as such natural features as rivers, lakes, continents, islands, and man-made features such as railroads and highways, and other terms applicable to the subject.
2. Graphs—In reading graphs the student must learn to:
a. Interpret the legend and understand the meaning of vertical and horizontal axis.
b. Identify the scale of measure used.
c. Discover what conclusions can be drawn from the graph.

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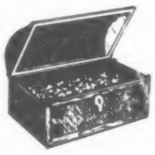
[11] Griffin Thompson Pugh, *Guide to Research Writing* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955), pp. 46-52.

3. Filmstrips—One of the advantages of filmstrips and slides is that they can be paced to the needs of the student. Most students learn with ease to operate audio-visual aids.
4. Tapes and records — Among their benefits are opportunities for providing guided listening, developing auditory and speaking skills, and stimulating interest in reading.

VI. Organizing information
  A. Skills
    1. Note-taking
    2. Outlining
    3. Classifying
    4. Summarizing
    5. Recall
  B. Activities
    1. Note-taking — Use outline form for notes. Select main points and reword in familiar vocabulary. Use a uniform labeling system such as I., A., 1.,
      a. Notes taken originally in permanent form save valuable time. Keep notes from one class or subject together.
    2. Outlining — Organize information. Use Roman numerals to represent the major headings or main ideas. Subtopics or points of detail are indented and prefaced by capital letters. Details that support the subtopics are preceded by Arabic numerals. Any additional subtopics are preceded by lower case letters.

    3. Summarizing—Preserve in brief form the main ideas and facts. In developing the summarizing skills the following techniques are suggested:
      a. Have students summarize a message so that it would be suitable to send by telegram.
      b. Have students summarize stories into a short paragraph.
      c. Have students write headlines from articles in the newspaper.
    4. Developing recall through the *SQ3R Study Skills Formula*[12]
      a. *Survey*: Look through whole assignment. Read the headings; examine pictures, graphs, diagrams. Try to get the general idea of the whole lesson.
      b. *Question*: Think of the questions that will likely be asked and answered in the lesson. Turn headings into questions.
      c. *Read*: Study the lesson to find answers to the questions. Concentrate on main ideas and list them on paper. Leave space between topics. After reading a section pick out points to remember and list them under the topics.
      d. *Recite*: Go back over the assignment immediately. Ask yourself, "Do I remember what this topic is about?" An immediate quiz on what you have just read is the best way to prevent forgetting.
      e. *Review*: Go back over your headings and quiz yourself. Re-read the parts which you have forgotten.

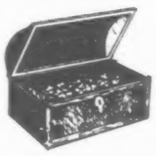


Other methods which might be taught to develop better reading and study skills are EVOKER (Explore, Vocabulary, Oral Reading, Key Ideas, Evaluate, Recapitulate) and PQRST (Preview, Question, Read, State, Test).[13]

VII. Developing research skills
  A. Selecting the subject

After a student has selected a topic which holds special interest for him, teach him to locate and evaluate materials available on his subject.

  B. Developing a bibliography
    1. Author
    2. Title
    3. Facts of publication



While searching in the library for materials on his subject, the student should make an exact record on index cards of each book, article, or document he finds that he might use. These cards are kept for the purpose of making footnotes of citation. In addition, the cards actually used are put in alphabetical order and the information copied for the final bibliography.

Forms for bibliographical cards frequently used are:

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[12] Francis P. Robinson, *Effective Study* (rev. ed.; New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1961), pp. 13-14, 29-30.

[13] Walter Pauk, "On Scholarship: Advice to High School Student," *The Reading Teacher, XVII* (November, 1963), pp. 73-78.

For a book

Pence, R. M. *A Grammar of Present Day English.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963.

For an article in a periodical

Shaw, Wilbur. "The One-Man Farm," *Life,* XXI (March, 1962), 3-6.

For an encyclopedia

"Rats," *Encyclopedia Brittanica* (1964), VII, 542

C. Locating materials
   1. Card catalogue
   2. Periodical indexes
      a. *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*
      b. *New York Times Index*
      c. Other indexes in special fields and subjects
   3. Reference books

D. Taking notes
   1. Identify note card with name of author and title.
   2. Make notes on both sides of card, if necessary.
   3. State author's ideas in own words.
   4. Be careful to use author's exact words when quoting his work.
   5. Place page number of source at end of note card.
   6. Identify content of each card with symbols in upper right corner matching the outline of the subject.

E. Organizing the paper
   1. Kinds of organization
      a. Chronological
      b. Spatial
      c. Cause and effect
   2. Kinds of outlining
      a. Topic
      b. Sentence

F. Writing the paper
   1. First Draft (Formulate ideas from various sources.)
   2. Footnotes (Footnote quotations and materials cited from various sources.)
      a. Primary citation
         In text, place Arabic number slightly above the line to be documented. Place corresponding number before footnote at bottom of same page.[14]
         Example:
         [1]Henry B. Bowman, *Introduction to Creative Writing* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1963), pp. 30-34.
      b. Secondary citation
         Example:
         [2]*Ibid.* (followed by page number). This refers to same source as the one immediately preceding.
         [3]Author's last name, *op. cit.,* pp. 51-52. If another footnote intervenes, this form is used.
   3. Final Draft
      a. Title Page
         (1) Title of paper
         (2) Name of student
         (3) Course
         (4) Date
      b. Outline or table of contents (Use small Roman numerals for pages.)
      c. Body of paper (Number with Arabic numerals from page 1 to last page.)
      d. Bibliography

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[14] Florence V. Shankman and Robert Kranyik, *How To Teach Reference and Research Skills* (New York: Teachers Practical Press, Inc., 1964), p. 31.

Essential Reading-Study Skills for the Secondary School

Locating Information

Ability to use:

1. Index, glossary, appendix
2. Marginal, chapter, and paragraph headings
3. Maps, charts, graphs, tables
4. Bibliography
5. Atlas, yearbook, encyclopedia
6. Dictionary (guide words, entry words, syllabication, accent marks, pronunciation, phonetic spelling, special information sections)
7. The library

Interpreting and Evaluating Information

Ability to:

1. Interpret author's mood and point of view
2. Discriminate between inference and fact, propaganda and facts
3. Consider date of publication and authority of writer

Organizing Information

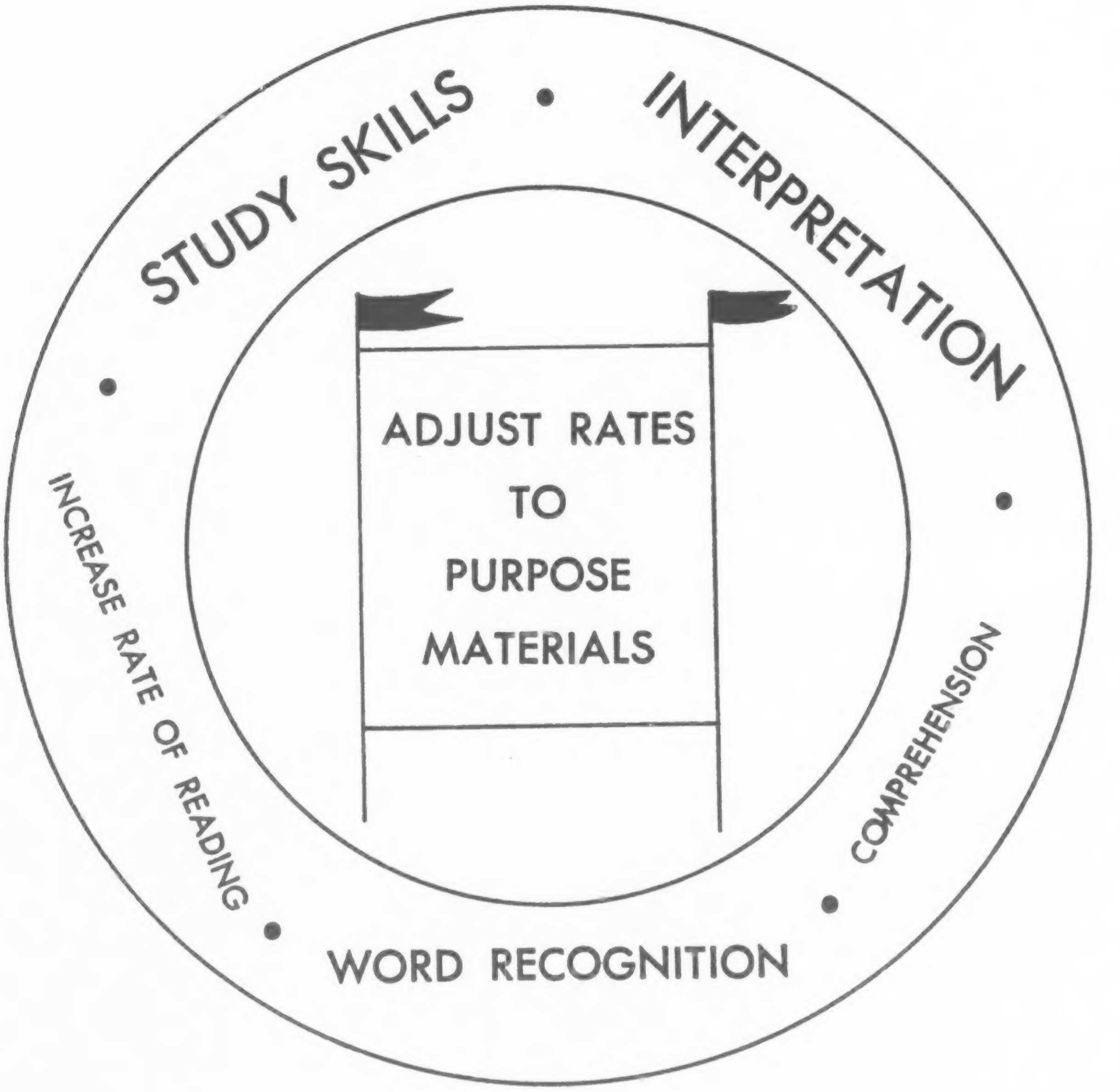
Ability to:

1. Identify details to support main ideas
2. Take running notes
3. Make a summary
4. Make a vertical outline
5. Organize information in the form of charts, graphs, and tables

Remembering Ideas Read

Ability to use efficient procedures in remembering:

1. Note-taking
2. Outlining
3. Summarizing
4. SQ3R Method
5. Previewing, skimming, and scanning



Rates of Reading Comprehension

In the opinion of Karlin and other reading authorities, speed in reading "per se" has no real meaning.[15] It must be related to understanding; therefore, the emphasis must be on understanding rather than on increased rate of reading. It is also important that the student know that he must suit his rate to his purpose and to the complexity and familiarity of the material being read. If the purpose is to get factual and accurate information, the rate should be slower.

A reasonable approach is to emphasize the number of thoughts and ideas per page rather than the number of words per page.[16] This would allow for flexibility in rate as the material demands a slower or faster pace. The flexible reader may read rapidly or skip parts that are irrelevant or have no bearing upon his aims. The flexible reader knows what he wants from materials, whether it is the main idea, supporting details, or a general overview. He reads differently when reading a newspaper, magazine, novel, textbook, or an editorial. The flexible reader gears his reading rate to his thinking rate.

There is no fixed rate of speed at which a student should be expected to read materials. Rate varies with the type of materials and the purpose in reading. Flexibility in rate should be a major goal to achieve effective and efficient reading. The following guide for flexibility in reading rate serves to illustrate the four rates to be developed and the purposes for which they can be used effectively.

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[15] Robert Karlin, *Teaching Reading in High School* (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1964), p. 182.

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 188.

Guide for Flexibility in Reading Rate[17]

Slowest: precise, reflective thinking

For such purposes as:	*Such material as:*
Following directions Learning verbatim Ascertaining intricate relationships Understanding and solving problems Gaining insight into depth of meaning Oral reading	Problems Recipes and other directions Religious and philosophical works Intricate technical materials Poetry and drama Maps and charts

Slow: reading for information

For such purposes as:	*Such material as:*
Comprehending thoroughly Reading critically Studying for classwork	Textbooks Technical nonfiction Literary prose Encyclopedia articles Editorials

Average: recreational reading

For such purposes as:	*Such material as:*
Enjoying a story Satisfying curiosity Superficial comprehension	Novels and short stories Biography Accounts of personal experience Magazine articles of general interest News items of temporary interest

Rapid: scanning and skimming; "leafing through"

For such purposes as:	*Such material as:*
Finding a specific item of information Getting a general impression of content Finding the proper place to start slower reading Judging whether the material is suitable for slower reading	Reference books Indexes Newspaper pages Magazines Books selected as of possible interest or value

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[17] The University of the State of New York, *Reading in Secondary Schools* (Albany, New York: The University of the State of New York, The State Department of Education, 1965), p. 27. Reprinted by permission.

To improve rate of reading, teachers should understand basic causes of the lack of flexibility and appropriate methods to correct the deficiencies.

- I. Causes of slow reading
  - A. Lack of real and vicarious experiential backgrounds
  - B. Limited sight vocabulary
  - C. Inadequate vocabulary and comprehension
  - D. Insufficient word recognition clues
  - E. Lack of phrasing
  - F. Use of "crutches"
  - G. Vocalization
- II. Effective methods of increasing rate
  - A. Giving students materials highly charged with interest and on their independent, then instructional, reading level
  - B. Timing the reading of selections for various purposes
  - C. Checking comprehension after reading the story or selection
  - D. Teaching skimming and scanning skills
    - 1. Skimming is like "skimming the cream off the top." It involves reading headings, topic sentences, introductory and concluding paragraphs, summary sentences, key words and phrases. The purpose of skimming is to get a general impression of the selection by taking a quick glance at the table of contents, chapter heading, paragraph headings.
    - 2. Scanning is like looking in the crowd for a particular friend or person or looking rapidly for a specific fact as in the dictionary, almanac, or index.
  - E. Using mechanical devices
    - 1. Flashmeters and tachistoscopes
    - 2. Individual pacers
    - 3. Films

The use of mechanical devices to increase rate of reading is often accepted among teachers who conduct reading improvement classes. From studies made to measure the worth of these mechanical devices, it is recognized that gains can be made in reading rate through their use. The tachistoscope and films have been found to be less effective for developing flexible rates than the individual pacer. The increase in rate through mechanical devices is questioned since students frequently are motivated through their interest in the device itself. Equal gains in rate can be realized through programs that do not use mechanical devices.[18]

"The most effective way to increase rate," states Karlin, "is to improve ability to understand units of thoughts. The elimination of word-recognition, comprehension, interpretation, and study skills weaknesses is bound to produce results that will be reflected in an increase in reading rate."[19]

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[18] Karlin, *op. cit.*, p. 193.

[19] From *Teaching Reading in High School* by Robert Karlin, copyright © 1964, by The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., reprinted by permission of the publishers.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Teaching Reading in the Content Areas

Common Responsibilities

Contrary to popular belief that the responsibility for teaching reading rests solely upon the specialized reading teacher, content area teachers have the greater opportunity to develop functional reading skills at the secondary level. These skills are essential to the student's further progress in study activities which demand an increasingly higher level of performance.

The secondary student, being in content area classes for the greater part of his school day, has many opportunities and challenges to use a wide variety of reading skills. Within the content area subjects, the student also has the setting to nurture his individual interests which often promote reading skills development and wide reading.

Although the terms "reading teacher" and "content area teacher" are not synonymous, the instructional purposes of each are quite similar. While the specialized reading teacher must help students develop the basic and functional skills necessary for reading in the secondary school, the content area teacher must help students refine and transfer basic reading skills to the subject field and develop specific skills that are especially needed in each subject-matter area.

Content area teachers are not expected to be remedial reading teachers. However, they are expected to teach students who do not know how to read the specific subject-matter, how to read it. If students, for example, do not know how to recognize words, understand the vocabulary, comprehend the basic facts, remember details, skim materials, and study within the various subject-matter areas, content teachers must teach these and other needed skills as a part of the instructional program.[1]

The reading-study skills which all content area teachers must teach include:

1. Reading and studying the selected textbook(s).
2. Recognizing and understanding the technical vocabulary.
3. Adjusting reading rate to the type and difficulty of the material and to the reading purposes.
4. Locating written material.
5. Evaluating written material.
6. Comprehending written material.
7. Interpreting written material.
8. Organizing written material.
9. Summarizing written material.
10. Remembering what is read.
11. Applying what is read.
12. Reading widely in the field.[2]

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[1] Arville Wheeler, *Reading in the Content Areas* (New London, Connecticut: Vision, Inc., 1959), p. 7.

[2] *Guide for Instruction in Reading for the Plainview Public Schools* (Plainview, New York: Plainview—Old Bethpage Public Schools, 1962), p. 117.

To teach these skills requires a teacher's knowing the students and their learning needs, knowing the demands of the subject and the skills essential for academic and personal growth, knowing effective teaching procedures and appropriate instructional materials, and keeping informed of changes and new advances in knowledge and teaching techniques in each content area.

Specifically, each subject area teacher must:

I. Know and appraise students' reading performance
  A. As individuals by checking
    1. General level or reading ability (information from cumulative folders and standardized tests)
    2. Student's self-image as a reader
    3. Performance in the content field
      a. Using an informal reading inventory, study skills inventories, interest questionnaires, and various checklists
      b. Exploring experiential background
        1. Through informal class discussions
        2. Through pretests and background tests
        3. Through autobiographical writing to describe specific experiences relevant to the course
      c. Discovering student's attitude toward the subject
        1. Through observation in class
        2. Through class discussions
        3. Through informal interviews
        4. Through written statements
  B. As a group by recognizing
    1. The range of individual differences in reading ability
    2. The important differences in background experiences

II. Understand and accept all areas of responsibility such as
  A. General responsibility for knowing reading demands of subject placed on the student in such areas as
    1. Specialized vocabulary
    2. Suitable reading-study methods (e.g., SQ3R)
    3. Flexibility of rate to purpose
  B. General responsibility for helping the student to develop the following skills and abilities in depth to function in disciplines on increasingly higher levels
    1. To comprehend
    2. To interpret
    3. To select
    4. To evaluate
    5. To organize
    6. To summarize
    7. To remember
    8. To apply important information
  C. Specific responsibility for progress in such specific and basic reading skills as are required in the particular content area.
    1. Reading to understand and improve vocabulary
    2. Reading to follow directions
    3. Reading for details
    4. Reading for main points or ideas
    5. Reading to select data bearing on a question or problem
    6. Reading to determine relationships
    7. Reading to organize
    8. Reading to evaluate or criticize
    9. Reading to compare or contrast
    10. Reading for implied meanings
    11. Reading to form sensory impressions
    12. Reading maps, graphs, charts, tables, etc.
    13. Adjusting reading rate to purpose
    14. Skimming and scanning
    15. Judging the relevancy and validity of source materials
    16. Using oral reading where necessary and/or useful

III. Understand helpful procedures for improving various skills and abilities by
  A. Developing readiness for reading
    1. Extend and enrich experiential backgrounds
      a. Direct experience
      b. Pictorial and auditory aids
      c. Abstract or symbolic representations
    2. Make students "at home" with the textbook for the course
      a. Introduce text at the beginning of the course
      b. Acquaint students with study aids available in the textbook (glossary, index, chapter questions, introductory paragraphs, summaries, etc.)
      c. Guide use of study aids
      d. Guide the reading of the first assignment
    3. Make reading assignments purposeful
      a. Identifying one's teaching purposes through such questions as:
        1. "What kinds of questions will be answered by this material?"
        2. "Are these questions relevant to my teaching purposes?"

    3. "Are these questions likely to be important to my students and attainable by them?"
  - b. Leading students to set purposes for reading the assignments
  - c. Helping students to understand and to use text signals for purposeful reading
  - d. Clearing up difficulties which the teacher foresees as likely to arise
  4. Differentiate assignments for the above average, average, and below average readers when only one textbook is available

B. Stimulating wide reading and broadening interests in the content area
  1. Know the school's library resources for the field
  2. Make suggestions for increasing library resources
  3. Motivate students to do extensive reading
  4. Give practice in locating and using various sources of information
  5. Provide students with the opportunity to share the results of wide reading

C. Making appropriate instructional materials available
  1. Promote the continual addition of supplementary instructional materials to the existing supply
  2. Provide textbooks of varying levels of difficulty
  3. Increase the teacher's personal collection of supplementary materials
  4. Provide a suitable classroom library for more extensive reading in the curriculum field

IV. Accept responsibilities for continuous growth as a teacher by
  A. Participating in in-service training programs to improve the teaching of reading in general and in the content area in particular
  B. Evaluating personal reading skills in teaching fields
  C. Working to improve one's own reading skills
  D. Increasing knowledge through reading
  E. Cultivating students' interest in the subject
  F. Collecting related materials
  G. Locating helpful community resources
  H. Belonging to professional organizations and using the teaching aids available through them[3]

Basic Teaching Techniques

There are several basic teaching techniques which all content area teachers may find useful for improving students' reading and study skills in the subject-matter areas. These include:

1. Listing difficult words, terms, idioms, or expressions
2. Studying the list from the student's point of view
3. Establishing relationships between new words and known vocabulary
4. Teaching technicalities: concepts, diagrams
5. Planning use of aids to learning: maps, audio visuals, related materials
6. Comparing reading skills lists with material to be taught
7. Listing objectives for presentation
8. Listing interpretative questions (*how* and *why* in addition to what, when and where)
9. Planning a readiness period
10. Evaluating as well as summarizing the content of the lesson
11. Adapting certain techniques such as SQ3R, introduced in Chapter Seven, to textbook study
12. Making effective assignments which tell students[4]
    - a. *What* to do (content)
    - b. *Why* to do it (motivation)
    - c. *How* to do it (skills)

Since many study activities involve reading in every content area, each teacher should become familiar with the basic steps in teaching the reading of a selection in any subject-matter material. "While it is true that there is no one best way of introducing or teaching a selection, the following steps are often used:

1. *Building Readiness for Reading the Selection.* By the use of visual aids, discussions, illustrations provided by the teacher, and many other introductory activities, backgrounds needed for accurately interpreting the selection are developed.
2. *Introducing Unknown Words or Words with Specialized Meanings.* The teacher anticipates vocabulary difficulties which might constitute a reading problem for some of the students who are to read the selection. During the readiness activities and discussion, the teacher presents the words in sentences on the chalkboard. He may use this step to teach some of the word-recognition techniques, pointing out word structure and deri-

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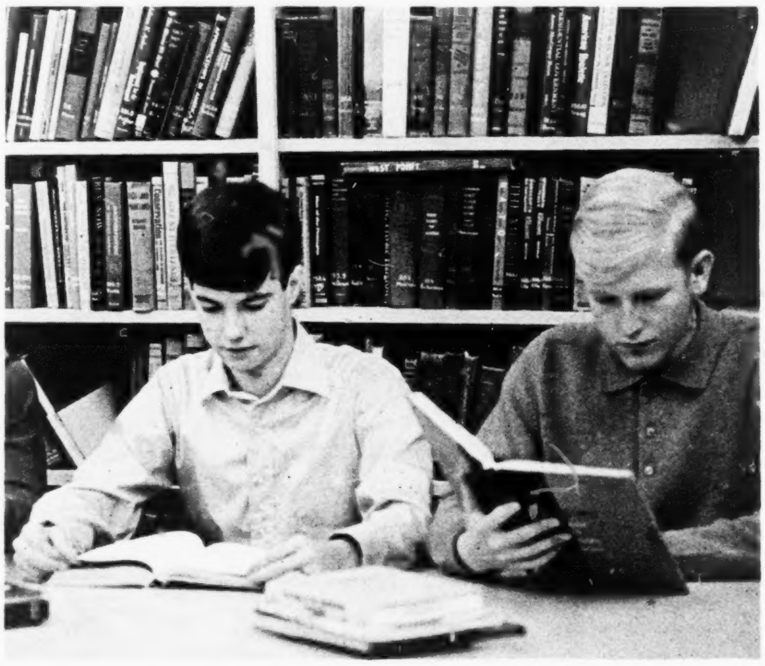
[3] South Carolina Education Association TEPS Reading Course Committee, *The Teaching of High School Reading* (2nd ed.; Columbia, South Carolina: South Carolina Education Association, 1965), pp. 17-19.

[4] *A Guide for Instruction in Reading for the Plainview Public Schools, op. cit.*, p. 128.

vation. The sentences are studied and discussed by the students prior to reading the selection.

3. *Setting Purposes for Reading the Selection.* During the introductory phases of teaching a selection, worthwhile purposes would be formulated by the teacher and students or, at times, by the teacher alone. These purposes may relate to the entire selection or to sections within a longer selection. Such purposes are listed on the chalkboard so that they may be referred to by the students as the selection is being read.
4. *Suggesting Reading Adjustments.* In relationship to the purposes for which a selection is being read, the teacher suggests ways of reading the selection. The rate at which the reading can be done to the best advantage, the study skills that would be employed, the attention to be paid to technical terms or figures of speech, and the like, are explained to the students.
5. *Reading the Selection.* After the preparatory work has been completed, the selection is read silently by the students for the purposes sought and with the reading adjustment suggested. The entire selection should be read before a discussion of it takes place. It should be noted, however, that often it is necessary to divide a longer story or other piece of writing into parts to be taught as selections.
6. *Discussing the Selection.* The follow-up discussion of the selection should be an outgrowth of the purposes for reading the selection. The discussion should be informal, and the teacher should not usually resort to question-and-answer methods, although motivating questions may sometimes be necessary. If any student indicates faulty comprehension of the selection, the teacher should attempt to find out the cause of the confusion and use this as an instructional opportunity. At one time, the problem may be failure to understand implied rather than directly stated meaning; at another time, the difficulty might be one of faulty word recognition.
7. *Providing Additional Reading to Develop Specific Skills and Abilities.* From time to time it is necessary to have a selection reread in order to develop specific reading skills and abilities. Such purposes as separating a story into basic parts, noting topic sentences in selected paragraphs, locating figures of speech or semantic variations of words, locating statements of facts and those of opinion, and reading appropriate parts orally are examples of suitable purposes for rereading. The teacher may wish to develop specific lists of questions or other types of exercises to aid in the development of reading skills and abilities, but, for the most part, reading proficiencies can best be developed in exercises directly related to the selections read. Extensive reading on the same topic is another excellent means of providing experiences which foster the growth of reading skills and abilities.
8. *Making Use of the Ideas Gained from Reading the Selection.* After the selection and the related reading has been done, the students often make creative use of the ideas gained. Such use includes linguistic, artistic, dramatic, or other modes of expressing the ideas."[5]



Reading in English

Skills Essential to Reading in English

In the English class the student approaches a type of reading he encounters nowhere else in his school curriculum. Yet literature will probably make up most of his reading after he finishes the academic phase of his life. The English teacher's main purposes are to help students understand and appreciate works of literature and to express themselves in both oral and written work. In order to understand and appreciate a work of literature, the student must certainly be able to read that work.

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[5] Guy L. Bond and Stanley R. Kegler, "Reading Instruction in the Senior High School," *Development In and Through Reading*, Sixtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1961), pp. 333-334. Reprinted by permission of the Secretary-Treasurer of the National Society for the Study of Education.

At this point the English teacher becomes a reading teacher. To help students understand and appreciate literature, the teacher must strengthen their basic reading skills and add to them the more specialized skills necessary in the reading of literature.

The teacher must make students aware that the purpose of literature is very different from that of science, history, or mathematics. Although not factual, literature mirrors life, recreates experience, and interprets universal truth in the human situation. The English teacher must show students literature's appeal as it gives people life and emotion and is not set apart for the intellectual or the academically talented. Because literature does have a different purpose, the teacher must also help the student develop the specialized skills necessary to understand and appreciate what he reads. The student must be able to follow the writer's purpose and technique as he uses figurative language, compresses situations, implies certain ideas, changes order of events, or heightens certain human traits. These techniques are the means by which the author approaches the reader's imagination, involves him in his idea, moves him to feel as the author feels, and opens up new worlds of thought and imagination.[6]

The effective reader in English must be able to:

- I. Understand words in context by
  - A. Building experience with new words through wide reading
  - B. Developing a consciousness of the relationship of particular words to the sense of a selection
  - C. Using context clues and dictionary helps in arriving at the meaning of a word
  - D. Realizing the importance of levels of usage and dialects in diction
- II. Understand the meaning of a selection by
  - A. Relating and organizing the ideas in the whole selection
  - B. Grasping the main idea
  - C. Differentiating between main ideas and supporting details
  - D. Understanding implied meaning
  - E. Establishing the author's purpose and point of view
  - F. Analyzing sentence, paragraph, and composition structure for its effect upon meaning
- III. Read, understand, and appreciate different types of literature by
  - A. Recognizing the purpose of each type
  - B. Knowing the characteristics of each type
  - C. Understanding the advantages and limitations of each type
- IV. Relate a literary selection to his own experience by
  - A. Comparing events and characters with real life situations
  - B. Developing insights into man's experiences and ideals in many times and places
  - C. Grasping the universality or the truth of the situation when applied to real life
- V. Adjust reading rate to the type of literature and to the purposes for reading it by
  - A. Knowing the demands of a particular type of literature—for example, that poetry is more compressed and difficult to read than a short story
  - B. Realizing the rate depends on purpose and type of selection
- VI. Read and appreciate fiction by
  - A. Following the sequence of a narrative
  - B. Delineating the characters and their interrelationships
  - C. Reading with imagery
  - D. Interpreting figurative language
  - E. Evaluating the story and its presentation as to the truth of its picture of human experience
- VII. Interpret literature by
  - A. Comprehending figurative language
  - B. Understanding the central idea
  - C. Fitting the central idea to the larger meaning which is often implied
- VIII. Evaluate the characteristics of good writing by
  - A. Reading widely of good literature
  - B. Comparing good with poorly written selections
  - C. Setting up standards of good literature in such areas as vocabulary, content, purpose, structure, and style
  - D. Stating his own conclusion in oral and written form

Some Specific Approaches for Teaching Reading in English Classes for:

- I. Improving vocabulary by attention to
  - A. Word meaning through
    1. Building experiences with new words before silent reading
    2. Developing interest and knowledge concerning word origins
    3. Using context clues
    4. Studying multiple meanings
    5. Classifying words
    6. Using the dictionary
    7. Making an inventory of characteristics

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[6] Nila Banton Smith, *Be a Better Reader, Book VI* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1961), p. 112.

about the meaning of a word, including use in the sentence, meaning of its prefix, suffix, root, or compound parts
B. Word form through
1. Using the dictionary pronunciation key, diacritical markings and symbols, abbreviations, and accents
2. Studying structural elements
3. Using a systematic attack on new words, including recognizable prefix, root, suffix, compound part, division into syllables, known beginnings, known phonograms

II. Developing interpretation and comprehension by
A. Placing emphasis on the thinking part of reading through
1. Setting up purposes for reading a selection
2. Building interest in the selection
3. Developing concepts which may be new to students
4. Reviewing what students already know about this particular material or situation
5. Clarifying unusual words or key words necessary for understanding and appreciation (use of pictures, shared experiences, discussion)
6. Offering opportunity for an exchange of ideas and interpretations after reading a selection
B. Teaching directly special skills needed for understanding all types of literature through
1. Selecting appropriate meaning for a word or phrase in context
2. Following organization and identifying antecedents and references to it
3 Selecting the main idea
4. Reading for significant details
5. Drawing inferences and conclusions
6. Finding cause and effect
7. Recognizing literary devices
8. Identifying tone and mood of the passage
9. Understanding the author's point of view, purpose, or intent
10. Predicting outcomes which go beyond the material
11. Making comparisons and seeing relationships
12. Evaluating the facts, the reasoning, or the worth of a selection

III. Developing tastes and appreciation through
A. Opportunity by
1. Guiding book selection
2. Making books easily accessible
3. Allowing time for reading books of their own choosing in class
4. Arranging for student discussion of books read
5. Oral reading by teacher or students
B. Direct teaching by
1. Explaining differences in quality of a good and poor passage as to content, style, and vocabulary
2. Helping students to find literary examples of good quality
3. Finding deeper meaning in various passages

IV. Developing flexibility of reading rate by
A. Stressing comprehension as well as rate
B. Showing how to read in thought units rather than single words
C. Eliminating lip movement, finger pointing, and vocalization
D. Showing the difference between regressions and rereading for a purpose
E. Teaching the habit of more complete attention to reading
F. Using various materials and purposes showing flexibility of approach as:
1. Skimming to review, to find a reference, to get the general idea of contents
2. Rapid reading to get main idea or plot of narrative
3. Reading material of average difficulty at normal rate
4. Reading at a careful rate to get details, to analyze, to understand material with unusual or technical vocabulary, or to appreciate poetry

V. Developing study skills by
A. Administering a test to help students become aware of their limitations
B. Showing students how to use time efficiently by keeping a daily record of activities then planning a more efficient schedule
C. Encouraging more adequate use of library through exercises on the use of the card catalogue, indexes, Dewey Decimal System
D. Studying such general features as table of contents, index, glossary, preface, appendix, bibliography, different forms of type (boldface, italics), illustrations, maps or charts
E. Using the SQ3R study method
F. Discussing and practicing note-taking, outlining, and summarizing
G. Studying the structure of paragraphs

VI. Using the steps in teaching a selection[7]

Reading in Social Studies

Skills Essential to Reading in Social Studies

Reading social studies materials is possibly the most difficult reading a student has to do. It requires the student to identify central issues in the factual material used. Often there are no plots, heroes or heroines, and no real beginning and end. The material, being informative, requires reading critically, thinking reflectively, drawing conclusions, and acquiring facts. To read social studies material effectively, the student has to be familiar with the special vocabulary and be able to adjust his reading rate to the kind of material and the purpose for which the material is being read. Moreover, the student must learn to recognize underlying assumptions, evaluate evidence, and appraise authority.

Social studies students must learn to comprehend the content in several types of reading materials. These include basic textbooks, newspapers, periodical literature, reference materials, historical documents, historical and contemporary novels, and biographies.

The effective reader in social studies must be able to:

- I. Understand and use the specialized vocabulary and deal with abstract terms inherent in social studies by
  - A. Acquiring vocabulary through context clues, footnotes, glossaries, the dictionary, and a systematic method of word recognition
  - B. Having an interest in words
  - C. Using critical thought processes to develop a basic social studies vocabulary
- II. Use study aids in textbooks (index, appendix, chapter introductions and questions, summaries, etc.)
- III. Read for a specific purpose and adjust reading rate to type and purpose of the content by
  - A. Establishing clear purposes and deciding upon appropriate reading rates, such as skimming, elaborative reading, and rapid reading
  - B. Recognizing types of content and the relative difficulty of the material
- IV. Obtain information from graphic aids by
  - A. Interpreting charts, graphs, tables, diagrams, and pictorial presentation including maps and globes
  - B. Correlating the use of graphic aids with reading the content
- V. Develop an understanding of concepts peculiar to social studies by
  - A. Understanding illustrative materials and graphic aids
  - B. Understanding basic time and place concepts
  - C. Understanding chronological order and the relationship between past and present
  - D. Understanding logical relationships
  - E. Recognizing sequences of events, groups of simultaneous events, and cause-effect relationships
- VI. Comprehend and interpret the material read by
  - A. Understanding and following directions
  - B. Organizing materials, locating specific facts, and interpreting ideas
  - C. Finding and classifying main ideas and supporting details
  - D. Summarizing materials read
  - E. Understanding the general significance of materials
  - F. Making comparisons and contrasts
  - G. Making inferences, drawing conclusions, and formulating generalizations
  - H. Seeing relationships
  - I. Relating ideas presented to previously conceived ideas
  - J. Interpreting the author's point of view
  - K. Detecting and analyzing propaganda through
    - 1. Recognizing the author's intent
    - 2. Distinguishing fact from opinion
    - 3. Noting implications and overt state-

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[7] South Carolina Education Association TEPS Reading Course Committee, *op. cit.*, pp. 24-25.

ments
    4. Observing words and techniques used to create a specific impression
  L. Forming judgments through proving and disproving statements

VII. Use the library to locate pertinent social studies materials by
  A. Knowing sources of social studies materials
  B. Knowing how to locate and use sources to find specific kinds of social studies materials

VIII. Apply problem-solving and critical-thinking skills to social issues

IX. Read extensively in social studies materials[8]

Some Specific Approaches for Teaching Reading in Social Studies

Certain basic steps should be followed in teaching students to read social studies materials. These steps provide a basic framework for teacher use and should be modified as necessary for lesson aims, materials used, and levels of students. Prior to reading a selection, some time should be spent in developing readiness, arousing student interest, setting reading purposes, and developing a background for reading. Specific aims to develop concepts essential to understanding the content should be included in the lesson framework. Silent reading for specific purposes and discussion to check comprehension and to clarify concepts and vocabulary should follow. If silent or oral rereading is desired, this should be accompanied by a new set of purposes, preferably centered around specific comprehension skills.[9]

Teaching both the content of social studies and the reading skills through the unit approach is highly recommended.

To build vocabulary in social studies, teachers and students might discuss the meanings of new words in context, explain how to use context clues to get meaning, and discuss etymology of important geographic and historical terms.

Another promising technique is to prepare a dictionary or word card file for each social studies subject. A discussion of polysyllabic words, word roots and affixes, and how each affects the meaning of the complete word is suggested. Charts listing technical and specialized words for a specific unit of study might be used. Using the new words in oral and written reports is another practical activity.

To develop concepts that are peculiar to reading in the social studies, students should be taught how to interpret maps, globes, charts, and other pictorial materials. Scales, latitude and longitude, and special symbols should be explained and charted for study and reuse.

The concept of time and place can best be developed by using "time lines" with years marked off at equal intervals and events recorded on the "time line." Understanding a sequence of events and groups of simultaneous events can be developed through outlining, note-taking, and summarizing.

To develop basic comprehension skills, teach new vocabulary and discuss the meaning of new words that appear in the assignment prior to silent reading. Have students find the main idea of a paragraph, a section, or an entire chapter and then support this with details. Ask the class to compose questions that they consider important about details of the selection. Write newspaper headlines that summarize a paragraph or section content. Discuss the relationship of one paragraph to another and of one chapter to another. Teach students how to take notes while reading, make outlines, and develop sentences summaries.

To refine and extend interpretation skills, motivate students to read for specific purposes, such as to verify an opinion or to compare points of view. Discuss the steps in problem solving. Encourage students to give their own opinions and explain why they reached their conclusions. Read excerpts from actual historical documents, making use of critical, analytical thinking to answer questions. Use current news items to estimate truth or falsity. Hold debates on beliefs and supporting factual evidence to help students learn to collect, evaluate, and relate specific facts. Have the class express opinions on specific materials; then have them defend their opinions by citing reasons and factual evidence. Teach students to read critically—to look for facts rather than opinions, to consider author qualifications, and to test whether the idea presented is consistent with known facts.

To help students learn to use the textbook more effectively, teach them to browse through the whole book to become acquainted with it. Have them examine and study the preface, foreword, table of contents, introductions to chapters and units, index, and glossary. Teach them the SQ3R method for reading a chapter.

To encourage students to read extensively in social studies, provide independent reading time periodically in class and assist them in selecting appropriate books. Discuss books of historical and contemporary fiction and biography, periodicals, and historical documents. Prepare bibliographies covering a wide range of reading interests, tastes, and levels and use these as a beginning approach to recreational and extensive reading. Finally, encourage students to find supplementary materials (articles, books, and documents) which illustrate facts, ideas, and critical issues presented in class discussions.

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[8] Oscar Haugh, ed., *Teaching Reading in the High School* (Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas Publications, 1960), pp. 10-11.

[9] David L. Shepherd, *Effective Reading in the Social Studies* (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960), pp. 10-12.

Reading in Mathematics

Skills Essential to Reading in Mathematics

Mathematics materials demand a student's best reading performance. The various math courses contain special symbols, formulas, and technical vocabularies. Students must learn a new form of sentence structure which combines symbols and words and, in many cases, uses only symbols to convey complete ideas.[10]

The mathematics student must be a precise, analytical reader. Content in this subject field calls for extreme concentration, selective thinking, and clear logical reasoning. One must be able to read a problem, understand the specific technical language, identify the question to be answered, see relationships, and distinguish relevant from irrelevant statements. The student must not only be able to read graphs, formulas, equations, and tables, but he must also be able to derive generalizations from these. Thus, reading in mathematics calls for highly specialized reading skills.[11]

To be a successful reader in mathematics, students must learn to follow steps in a process; interpret mathematics vocabulary; recognize numerous abbreviations; approximate meanings of words through a knowledge of prefixes, suffixes, and roots; and recognize the continuity of ideas from simple mathematics through algebra, geometry, and higher mathematics.

Students must learn to read basic textbooks, word problems, and mathematical reference materials. These require slow, intensive reading designed for following directions; obtaining, analyzing, and interpreting facts; recognizing and comprehending basic mathematical processes and quantitative relationships; drawing implications; and making applications.

The effective reader of mathematics materials must:

- I. Acquire basic vocabulary by
  - A. Understanding technical terms (e.g., *sine, quadratic*), abbreviations, and symbols
  - B. Knowing roots and affixes to aid in understanding mathematical terms
  - C. Knowing alphabetical, operational, and relationship symbols
  - D. Knowing literal numbers[12]
- II. Develop an understanding of concepts peculiar to mathematics by
  - A. Learning number concepts, such as place value, ratio, etc.
  - B. Learning algebraic concepts, such as formulas, equations, etc.
  - C. Learning geometric concepts, such as position, shape, size, nature of hypotheses, etc.
  - D. Learning trigonometric concepts, such as functional relationships between sides and angles, etc.
- III. Read and interpret verbal problems
- IV. Comprehend and interpret materials by
  - A. Following directions
  - B. Locating details
  - C. Selecting major points
  - D. Classifying points
  - E. Summarizing
  - F. Interpreting materials used for showing functional relationships—rules, principles, formulas, tables, charts, graphs, equations, axioms
  - G. Using computational tables
  - H. Constructing and interpreting statistical and functional graphs
  - I. Making basic geometric constructions and scale drawings
  - J. Using formulas and equations
  - K. Proofreading to verify and/or to locate errors

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[10] William S. Gray, ed., *Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952), p. 149.

[11] Shelley Umans, *New Trends in Reading Instruction* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963), p. 33.

[12] Haugh, *op. cit.*, pp. 23-24.

V. Develop and apply general reading-study skills by
   - A. Locating and using reference materials
   - B. Evaluating information
   - C. Organizing information through note-taking, outlines and summaries
   - D. Adjusting reading rate to the purpose and nature of materials

VI. Read extensively, recognize, and make use of quantitative data in newspapers, magazines, and books[13]

Some Approaches for Teaching Reading in Mathematics

The following five-step approach is recommended for teaching reading in mathematics materials.

1. Build readiness by helping students understand the reason for solving problems and know the general methods of approach in finding solutions. Make sure they have the mathematical background essential to understanding the problem.
2. To promote concept development, teach both general and mathematical vocabulary before reading and help students understand the problem and its translation into mathematical language.
3. Have students to read the problem silently to determine the fundamental problem.
4. Discuss and reread to determine the method and solution.
5. Finally, students should reread to determine whether the solution is correct.[14]

To promote the development of concepts peculiar to mathematics, provide a selected and organized set of ideas already meaningful to students. Encourage them to talk about experiences to enable them to abstract common elements involved. Indicate the symbol which is generally used to represent the concept. Finally, have students apply their knowledge to situations in which they have to use and see the significance of the symbol and the idea it represents.[15]

To develop mathematical vocabulary, provide time to study new terms. Contrast the mathematical meanings of words and terms with their meanings in other terms. Study the relationships between new words and their parts to known words, prefixes, suffixes, and roots. Stress the preciseness of mathematical vocabulary and show how this is applied in verbal problems and theorems. Secure and use a mathematical dictionary. Have students keep personal card files of new terms in mathematics. Have a committee of students make bulletin board displays of new words, showing their origins, synonyms, antonyms, and the like. Instruct students to change sentences or phrases into symbolic expressions, such as "three times a number" is "3n."

To help students read and interpret verbal problems, stress slow, analytical reading. Teach cues in verbal problems (e. g., "of" may mean "multiply"). Teach students that in solving problems, they must determine what facts are given, what they are trying to find out, what operations are to be used and in what order.

Have the students restate the problem in their own words, using synonyms that they can understand. Teach the meanings of unfamiliar words and symbols. Have the class visualize the problem and try to relate it to life experiences. Have them decide upon a possible formula or method and then estimate the probable result. Encourage students to write the necessary steps for solving the problem, and then to break these steps into relatively simple parts that can be worked. Before computing the problem, have students place beside each step the mathematical symbol or formula needed to solve it.

To promote wide reading in mathematical materials, encourage reading books and articles on astronomy, navigation, and the development of geometry. Students might report on the mathematical implications of the content of these materials. Stress the importance of mathematics by referring to the use of quantitative data in current magazines and daily newspapers. Use mathematical puzzles, games, and fun books to stimulate interest in reading mathematics material. Make mathematics periodicals available and work with the school librarian to secure appropriate and available books to arrange mathematics book exhibits.[16]

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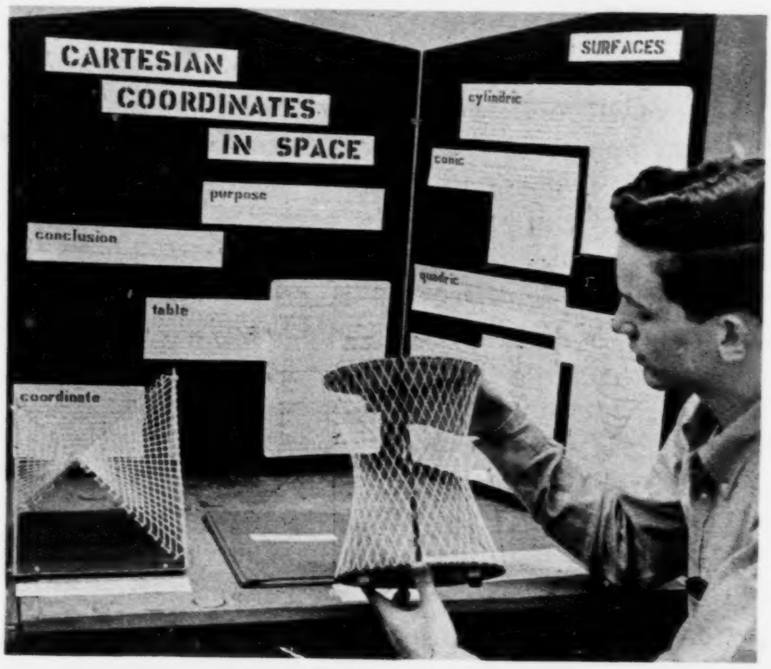
[13] Wheeler, *op. cit.*, pp. 7-8.

[14] Metropolitan Study Council, *Five Steps to Reading Success in Science, Social Studies, and Mathematics* (New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1954), p. 25.

[15] Gray, *op. cit.*, p. 145.

[16] Haugh, *op. cit.*, pp. 24-29.



Reading in Science

Skills Essential to Reading in Science

Science materials, require slow, thoughtful, precise analytical reading in detail. Literal understandings in science have to be clearly grasped in the order of their importance and in their proper sequence. While observations and experimentation are considered basic to problem-solving, reading provides one major source of information and data for problem-solving.

Experiments in science must be carried on through a step-by-step process. Students must read directions accurately, understand laws and principles, and recognize ways to apply these laws and principles. Furthermore, students must be able to understand details of diagrams, formulas, and charts and to establish relationships between these graphic aids and printed materials. Science has its own technical vocabulary which must be understood in making observations, performing experiments, and reading to solve problems. Science is an accurate discipline, requiring exacting reading and thinking skills.[17]

Science students must learn to read materials in basic textbooks, laboratory manuals, specialized books, pamphlets, abstracts, and literature and catalogues from manufacturing companies.

Science requires the same basic reading skills as the other content areas, but the specific purpose for which reading is done at a particular time demands detailed use of certain selected skills of reading. For example, problem-solving reading done in science is very precise. In mathematics an approximate answer may suffice sometimes, but in science it may prove disastrous.

Reading in science requires a specific kind of reflective thinking, which might mean the difference in success or failure in a student's experimentation.

The effective reader in science must be able to:

- I. Understand and use the technical and special vocabulary of science
- II. Use sources to locate materials by
  - A. Using general library skills
  - B. Using parts of books; e. g., indexes, tables of contents, glossaries, appendices
  - C. Using a variety of reading materials
- III. Identify and understand problems by
  - A. Understanding vocabulary
  - B. Understanding literal content and general significance of science materials
  - C. Understanding details, main ideas, and generalizations
- IV. Adjust reading speed to the type and difficulty of the material and purpose of reading
- V. Comprehend written material by
  - A. Determining purpose for reading
  - B. Understanding the author's point of view and interpretation of controversial items
  - C. Understanding specialized presentations and graphic aids such as:
    - 1. Maps, pictures, graphs, diagrams, and flow charts
    - 2. Technical symbols
    - 3. Scales, equations, and formulas
    - 4. Cross section and longitudinal models
  - D. Understanding technical and non-technical terms
  - E. Determining general significance of sentences, paragraphs, sections, chapters, units, and entire books, including illustrations
  - F. Recognizing the importance of facts and details
  - G. Using structural and semantic analysis: roots, prefixes, and suffixes
- VI. Evaluate materials intelligently by
  - A. Correlating textbook materials with daily experiences
  - B. Understanding the significance of problems
  - C. Determining the competency of the source
  - D. Estimating readability and determining author's purpose
  - E. Comparing and contrasting information
  - F. Differentiating between facts and opinions
  - G. Noting the importance of the date of publication
- VII. Use problem-solving approach by
  - A. Deciding what is to be found out

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[17] Umans, *op. cit.*, p. 38.

    B. Identifying known facts
    C. Planning the steps to arrive at a solution
VIII. Use the scientific method by
    A. Formulating hypotheses
    B. Collecting and evaluating evidence
    C. Drawing conclusions
    D. Testing conclusions
    E. Solving problems
    F. Doing critical and reflective thinking
IX. Apply concepts gained by
    A. Performing experiments
    B. Improving scientific discussions, observations, and ability to solve problems
    C. Reading scientific materials extensively
    D. Applying scientific knowledge to everyday living
X. Follow directions by
    A. Recognizing a sequence of steps
    B. Determining the relevance of this sequence of steps to the purpose
XI. Develop the habit of wide reading in scientific materials
XII. Evaluate his progress in reading scientific materials[18]

Some Approaches for Teaching Reading in Science

Techniques and devices for developing reading skills and habits needed in science listed below illustrate the many approaches that science teachers might use to advance skills and knowledge in the subject.

To build a scientific vocabulary, new words should be written on the chalkboard, defined, and used in sentences. Students might tell what they think the words mean from context. If meanings can be derived from context, the teacher might present the word for pronunciation only.

Discussing terms, giving special attention to root words and shades of meaning related to the assignment, is another way to develop scientific vocabulary. Keeping notebooks or card files of new words for use as quick references strengthens science vocabulary. Providing pictures, charts, diagrams, films, filmstrips, and field trips has also proven valuable.

To develop an understanding of concepts in science, the teacher might discuss meanings of new symbols, write meanings of technical symbols in sentence form, and through experimentation derive symbols unfamiliar to students. Discuss the meaning of new formulas and equations that appear in the reading assignment, and have students write the meaning of formulas and equations used in class in sentence form. Emphasize general rules that affect all equations and formulas.

To develop comprehension of science reading, use the SQ3R method. Discuss meaning of new symbols that appear in the reading assignment. Discuss etymology of important terms. Compile a science dictionary by units. Use new words in class discussion and explain and discuss them. Show students how to restate sentences in their own words. Write newspaper headlines that summarize a paragraph or section content. Ask specific questions that students can answer while reading. Secure class agreement on the main ideas of a paragraph and then of a longer selection and have students present evidence to support this idea. Have the class determine the topic sentence of a paragraph or section and find supporting evidence. Have students list details discovered in reading and rank them in importance. Write a summary of information gathered from various sources. Outline a chapter on the board. Outline a book with a single sentence summary of each chapter, and use summaries as a unit or semester review. Write statements that may be concluded from experimental evidence and discuss them with the class.

To improve following directions in science, have students number the consecutive steps when reading directions. Then discuss the reasons for the particular sequence indicated; point out the value of reading the entire set of directions first to obtain a general understanding of purpose and method. In the second, more deliberate reading, have the class determine how the steps in sequence, if followed, will achieve the purpose. Finally show through demonstration the value of rereading directions in a process of completing a long series of instructions.

To improve interpretation of materials read, teach students to read and understand formulas, not just to memorize them. Make guide sheets to be used in reading which contain specific questions and problems to be solved. Teach the six steps of the scientific method: formulating hypotheses, collecting and evaluating evidence, drawing conclusions, testing conclusions, solving problems, and thinking critically.

To assist in evaluating written materials, have students determine the relevancy of the material to the topic being studied and judge the reliability of the statements. To achieve the goals, develop a concept and have students find relevant and irrelevant information concerning it. Have them list authorities in specific scientific areas and discuss supporting evidence provided. With the class group, develop criteria to determine the validity of material, such as author's background, position, experience and possible prejudices, and publication dates. Find differing views on the subject and discuss these. Develop a scientific hypothesis and have students find information concerning it from competent and incompetent sources and distinguish between them.[19]

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[18] M. Jerry Weiss, ed., *Reading in the Secondary School* (New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc., 1961), pp. 250-252.

Reading in Business Education

Skills Essential to Reading in Business Education

Business education teachers have very realistic opportunities to see that their students receive an adequate general education, which includes foremost the abilities to read and to write.

In the laboratory setting, the business education teacher may make reading come alive. Typewriting offers unusual opportunities to help the student to read directions and to follow them. This course also offers opportunities for cooperative efforts with English teachers as the student's needs to spell and punctuate correctly and to write complete sentences are paramount to success.

Since new jobs have been created by the electronic computer, which was introduced commercially fourteen years ago, employment standards of some existing jobs have been raised. The effect of these changes is felt by business education teachers who have had new dimensions added to their responsibilities. Students must now have a higher level of reading skills, work habits, and self-discipline and be able to think and give a critical evaluation of their work.

Additional requirements will accompany new course offerings. Courses in data processing in high schools, for example, will place heavier demands on the business education teacher to teach the student to use reading as one of his most valuable tools.

The effective reader in business education must be able to:

I. Develop special competencies by
  A. Reading application forms, invoices, income tax forms, legal papers, tables, charts, graphs, and similar materials
  B. Reading for meaning from context, necessary when dealing with omissions in transcriptions
II. Develop a specialized vocabulary by
  A. Reading to understand technical concepts and generalizations
  B. Consulting dictionaries and special references for unfamiliar terms used by the teacher or employer
III. Develop comprehension skills by
  A. Phrase reading in longhand and shorthand
  B. Reading symbols
  C. Reading and re-reading to note errors
  D. Reading to follow directions
  E. Reading related material
  F. Recognizing that shorthand is a language built on other languages
  G. Applying what has been read and learned to life situations—at school, in the home, and on the job[20]

Some Approaches for Teaching Reading in Business Education

I. Establish a positive attitude toward reading by stressing its importance in the subject.
II. Use resource people from the community to emphasize the importance of reading on their jobs.
III. Use filmstrips that show importance of correctness, directness, and visual appeal of printed matter.
IV. Arrange attractive, purposeful bulletin boards.
V. Encourage reading business periodicals.
VI. Encourage students to work on various school publications.
VII. Provide graphic means to show students' improvement.
VIII. Invite students' suggestions for self-improvement.

Reading in Physical Education

Skills Essential to Reading in Physical Education

In addition to increasing needs for physical fitness, innovations and trends in physical education continually place greater responsibilities upon the teacher to use more activities that involve reading. Both the teacher and the student need to read more widely to keep informed of recent developments in health, sports, and recreational activities. Recent research on accidents and personal fitness activities, such as "jogging," provides pertinent information as well as an abundance of reading material geared to the interests of the high school student.

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[19] Haugh, *op. cit.*, pp. 18-24.

[20] Minneapolis Board of Education, *A Guide to the Teaching of Reading, Listening, Viewing, Grades 7-12* (Minneapolis, Minnesota: Minneapolis Public Schools, 1959), p. 14.

Reading will become more and more a part of "quality teaching" in physical education as increased emphasis is placed on lifetime sports. This involves more effective use of time and equipment. Rules and regulations of the sport may be read by the student at home, freeing the student and his instructor to practice the skills discussed in the manual or text.

Several basic skills are essential to successful reading of physical education materials. Foremost are the skills of understanding a specialized vocabulary and reading to follow directions. Students must be able to recognize sequences in directions and procedures for physical activities. They must know how to follow safety rules. Many charts, graphs, and tables which clarify narrative material must be read in physical education. Above all, students must be able to recognize facts and interpret data in these materials.

The effective reader in physical education must be able to:

I. Develop a specialized vocabulary by
  A. Studying manuals and textbooks to learn appropriate terms used in various activities
  B. Reading posters, brochures, and magazines and understanding teminology
  C. Viewing television, filmstrips, and other visual aids

II. Develop comprehension by
  A. Reading for main ideas
  B. Reading to acquire rules essential to performance in skill and competitive activities
  C. Reading for information essential to proper use and maintenance of equipment
  D. Reading to develop critical thinking
  E. Reading graphs, charts, tables, diagrams
  F. Reading to follow directions, safety rules, etc.
  G. Reading to recognize sequences, such as developmental approaches for motor skills, safety rules, first aid procedures, etc.

III. Develop permanent health habits and attitudes by
  A. Reading to evaluate information or interpret data
  B. Reading to evaluate advertising
  C. Reading to evaluate propaganda
  D. Reading to recognize scientifically proven up-to-date material[21]

Some Approaches for Teaching Reading in Physical Education

I. Create an interest in physical education by reading prepared statements of such famous sportsmen as Stan Musial.
II. Prepare cartoons and other visual aids on smoking, drugs, alcohol, and highway safety.
III. Survey sports preferred by the class and make reading materials on these sports available.
IV. Survey community resources for recreational and physical fitness activities. Use these resources in creating more interest in physical education.
V. Relate varied visual aids to physical development activities.
VI. Arrange for demonstrations of desired skills in tennis, golf, archery, trampoline, swimming, first aid, and the like. Relate these demonstrations to reading materials in each area.
VII. Show students how to read and use various manuals and textbooks for physical education.
VIII. Secure and use such publications on physical education and physical fitness as "Vim," "Vigor," and "Youth Physical Fitness" from the Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 20402.
IX. Stimulate each student to develop a personal competency in a lifetime sport for personal satisfaction by making available reading and viewing materials on the sport.

Reading in Home Economics

Skills Essential to Reading in Home Economics

To be successful in home economics, students must develop numerous reading skills and abilities, including a specialized vocabulary; an understanding of signs, symbols, and abbreviations; learning to follow directions; and understanding measurements. In addition, the student must learn to do collateral reading in art design, cultural background, psychology, and medicine.

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[21] South Carolina Education Association TEPS Reading Course Committee, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

Home economics students should develop the abilities to follow and interpret directions for recipes, patterns, and designs and to understand brief but concise instructions on appliances. They must be able to judge advertising and consumers' research reports and to read meters, itemized bills, charts, labels, guarantees, records, and budget books. They must be able to determine relationships and follow a sequence. Finally, home economics students must acquire reading skills essential to reading government bulletins and homemaking magazines.[22]

Some Specific Approaches for Teaching Reading in Home Economics

To help each student succeed in various projects, specific activities to develop reading skills must be provided. Students must learn how to skim a chapter on clothing or grooming to develop a readiness for learning. Basic terms relating to areas of living, as in home management, must be taught and related to daily experiences. Students must learn research skills by using a variety of resource materials especially geared to the home management process.

Some group activities helpful in developing reading skills include:

1. Teaching vocabulary and concepts by reading, discussing, and using visual aids, such as filmstrips, pictures from an information file, and illustrations.
2. Reading and reporting on current materials from periodicals to develop critical reading and research skills.
3. Selecting, organizing, and keeping up-to-date files of articles on homemaking and child care.

Some helpful individual reading-study activities are:

1. Reading assigned material to obtain useful information for planning a personal diet for a given period of time, making a budget of spending money, and similar projects.
2. Keeping an individual vocabulary list of useful terms.
3. Making posters on basic foods, proper dress, posture, etc.
4. Reading and judging statements about articles while "window shopping."
5. Interpreting and following directions while performing an individual task in cooking, sewing, or other activities.
6. Stimulating interest in wide reading, thus building a permanent interest in reading in the field.

Reading in a Foreign Language

Skills Essential to Reading in a Foreign Language

Successful reading in a foreign language is closely related to reading in one's native language. Many of the same abilities are required, some of the salient ones being comprehension, vocabulary development, mental imagery, and power of retention. In a foreign language, the auditory skill is of utmost importance, and visual acuity should be highly developed.

The teacher of a foreign language has an opportunity to add to the students' etymology of his language. The instructor may also show the modern day influence of a foreign language upon the students' lives. These influences may be shown in travel, food, music, clothing, entertainment, and the arts. In his role of interpreting and teaching a new language, the foreign language teacher becomes a linguist.

The effective reader in a foreign language must be able to:

- I. Acquire a basic vocabulary by
  - A. Recognizing words in the language
  - B. Pronouncing words in the language
  - C. Using the words in meaningful sentences and phrases
  - D. Conversing in the language
  - E. Looking up unusual words in a foreign language dictionary

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[22] Minneapolis Board of Education, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

II. Develop proficiency in using the language by
  A. Practicing reading common phrases, using visual aids of all types
  B. Drawing conclusions in assigned passages
  C. Writing critiques of foreign language readings
  D. Listening to tapes
  E. Writing original presentations in the language
  F. Reading instead of memorizing

Some Approaches for Teaching Reading in a Foreign Language

I. Building foundation for vocabulary and comprehension through a listening, speaking, reading, and writing sequence
II. Teaching the basic vocabulary of the most common words in the language
III. Acquainting the students with background, plot, and significance of literary selections as a preliminary activity to reading
IV. Setting purposes for reading
V. Introducing thought-provoking questions that may lead to class discussions
VI. Using guide questions leading toward anticipated outcomes
VII. Helping the student to appreciate reading about another culture
VIII. Using television instruction[23]

Reading in Music

Skills Essential to Reading in Music

Many teachers of music have commented that there is a definite relationship between the principles and practices of teaching reading and of teaching music. Just as in learning to read a language, a student learning to read music uses word recognition skills and a knowledge of certain symbols. Many basic reading skills are applicable in teaching music. For example, in vocal music much practice and emphasis are placed on correct pronunciation of words and syllabication.

The development of reading ability is a continuous process in both language and music. When problems in music or reading arise, teachers should use teaching procedures which fit the needs of the student at that time and provide enrichment as well.

The teacher has an opportunity to broaden students' lives by developing interests in and appreciation of music. Through the universal language of music, a student learns emotions and feelings of others. He becomes aware of the significant part music has played in the past and of its place in today's ever-changing world.

The effective reader in music must be able to:

I. Develop a specialized music vocabulary by
  A. Using reliable dictionaries
  B. Making a class dictionary of musical terms, e.g., *fugue, opera, andante*
  C. Referring to cumulative vocabulary charts
  D. Introducing signs and symbols when needed
  E. Using flash cards
  F. Using colorful derivations of technical signs and symbols
II. Develop pronunciation skills by
  A. Emphasizing vowels
  B. Giving special attention to blends
  C. Using choral reading through
    1. Pronunciation
    2. Interpretation
    3. Phrasing
III. Build comprehension skills by
  A. Interpreting content of verses and stanzas in songs
  B. Providing supplementary reading, such as
    1. Biographies of composers and musicians
    2. Stories and histories of operas
    3. Critical reviews
  C. Playing musical games
  D. Dividing a selection into phrases or patterns
  E. Using films, slides and records

Some Approaches for Teaching Reading in Music

I. Teaching the reading of symbols and notes
II. Teaching skill in syllabication
III. Developing a sense of proper phrasing
IV. Teaching the specialized vocabulary of music, using charts, chalkboard, and bulletin board

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[23] South Carolina Education Association TEPS Reading Course Committee, *op. cit.*, pp. 27-29.

V. Teaching scanning for key, time phrasing, and the like
VI. Teaching the reading of fingering charts
VII. Developing an appreciation for historical and cultural settings
VIII. Teaching critical reading and thinking
IX. Helping students to evaluate and make judgments
X. Encouraging wide reading of biographies and other musical materials

Ceramics
Cones
Fire
Glaze
Kiln
Pottery
Translucent
Quartz
Wedging

Reading in Art

Skills Essential to Reading in Art

An enthusiastic art teacher has an opportunity to make better readers of some students whom no one else can reach. Students gravitate to art because of special interest or talent. Among these students are some who have not been successful in the academic field. They have not been hitherto motivated in developing reading skills because of lack of interest or success. The art teacher can capitalize on interests of these and other students to develop reading abilities. Skills practiced in this area, where participants are so highly motivated, can be transferred readily to other subjects. The very nature of the following skills required to participate fully in the broad area of art provides a most interesting teaching strategy for the teacher of art.

The effective reader in art must be able to:

Read a specialized vocabulary
Read measurements and abbreviations
Read and follow directions
Read for detail
Understand literal and figurative meanings, pictures, paintings, architecture and sculpture
Read resource materials for information about the history and development of art-cultural background
Understand written materials that help build appreciations of art
Read theory and techniques for retention
Read for oral sharing and presentation
Read critically of today's art and that of the past
Read critically to develop insight of character as revealed by art
Read creatively for interpretation of moods, motions, and spiritual expression

Some Approaches for Teaching Reading in Art

The initial approach and the one with the most far-reaching effects is that of maintaining a collection of interesting, colorful art books within the classroom. These books should include a wide range of reading levels from grade school to college difficulty.

The instructor who knows the students' reading levels can guide readers to books most satisfying to them. Directing a student to the right book at the right time can make this classroom library a place of success for some students who have failed in many other reading experiences. It can provide enrichment for all students regardless of their reading levels.

Group discussion of pictures and paintings fosters oral language development which affects reading skills.

Human figure drawing aids in understanding vocabulary used with the anatomy of the body. This is a rich activity to promote transfer of learning between the art and physical education and science classes.

Studies of various periods in architecture and sculpture aid in strengthening the concepts necessary in the study of history and other social studies.

Foreign language vocabulary can be understood by certain pieces of art, e.g., "Pieta."

The meaning of certain words used in the context of art can be explored further in a different context of other reading materials, e.g., "analogous colors."

The study of art vocabulary in relation to descriptive abstract terms dealing with emotions can help the student better understand and identify these. Teachers might have students pick out pictures from magazines that help describe and relate to such words as *melancholy* and *elation.*

New insights into word meanings can come with the study of words titling some pieces of art, e.g., "The Angelus."

Word recognition and vocabulary strength can be gained with more emphasis and understanding given by the teacher to the words used in labeling a fine arts showing.

T-SQUARE
TRIANGLES
CIRCLE

Reading in Industrial Arts

Skills Essential to Reading in Industrial Arts

Contrary to the beliefs held by some, vocational courses are not a "catch all" for students having little or no ability in reading. Reading is one of the most basic tools used in this area of the curriculum to get basic information, follow directions, interpret charts and diagrams, read blueprints, make accurate computations, and perform other duties necessary to various jobs.

Most industrial arts teachers use textbooks and trade publications in their courses. Therefore, these teachers must help students use the text materials more effectively by calling attention to the importance of the organization of the textbook, the glossary of specialized terms, and the illustrations. Students must be taught how to read a chapter and how to adjust reading speed to specific purposes. Other important skills to be taught are those of following directions and understanding sequential order.

An effective reader in industrial arts must be able to:

- I. Acquire an understanding of the vocabulary of the subject
  - A. Names of tools, equipment, and materials
  - B. Brand names
  - C. Common abbreviations used
  - D. Technical and special terms
  - E. Understanding of symbols used for feet, inches, degrees, and the like
- II. Follow written directions for shop procedures
  - A. Assembling materials
  - B. Organizing the work area
  - C. Proceeding by steps or units in sequence
  - D. Checking process and product periodically
  - E. Making final assembly
  - F. Finishing the product
- III. Read illustrations and diagrams
  - A. Visualizing the completed product
  - B. Identifying parts
  - C. Recognizing symbols
  - D. Applying the legend or scale
  - E. Interpreting the illustration or diagram correctly
- IV. Read the catalogs, journals, and advertisements pertaining to the industrial arts
  - A. Index and table of contents
  - B. Quantity - quality clues
  - C. Approval and/or ratings by appropriate agencies or users
  - D. Discount or wholesale symbols
  - E. Critical analysis of description of specifications and prices
  - F. Order forms
- V. Develop skill in reading other special materials
  - A. Color charts
  - B. Design (balance, size, weight)
  - C. Markings on dials or scales on equipment
  - D. Warranties and instructions for use and care of equipment
  - E. Service procedures and parts lists
  - F. Details on illustrations or diagrams
  - G. Maintenance and lubrication charts
- VI. Read extensively in the field
  - A. Trade publications and professional magazines such as *School Shops*
  - B. Information about careers
  - C. Avocational possibilities
  - D. Reference reading, e.g., publications by hardwood associations
- VII. Develop differentiated reading speeds
  - A. Skimming and scanning
  - B. Reading for details
  - C. Reading for general significance
- VIII. Make accurate self-evaluations of progress in reading
  - A. Realizing the importance of self-evaluation
  - B. Using a self-evaluation checklist periodically [24]

Some Specific Approaches for Teaching Reading in Industrial Arts

- I. Developing vocabulary
  - A. Requiring the student to identify all tools and equipment, specifically — avoiding "that what ya' may call it" or "thing-a-ma-jig" used in definitions

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[24] *Ibid.*, pp. 32-33.

  - B. Using filmstrips and sound films provided by equipment manufacturers and other sources
  - C. Teaching significant words used in textbooks, references, and charts
  - D. Directing students to keep a card file of terms for memorization
  - E. Requiring students to identify all wood grades by their names: FAS, common, select, construction, and the like

II. Giving practice in following written directions
  - A. After working drawings are made, requiring step-by-step plans and a materials list along with tools to accomplish the task
  - B. Having students draw plans, exchange the plans, and check for clarity
  - C. Testing comprehension by requiring the student to explain his step-by-step plan to the instructor
  - D. Having students assemble and disassemble simple machinery according to the manufacturer's assembly directions or charts
  - E. Drawing up plans lacking one or more steps and having students identify and supply omitted steps
  - F. Playing games that require accurate following of written directions
  - G. Requiring students to read and to explain directions furnished with machinery before attempting to use it
  - H. Giving both written and manipulative safety tests before students begin work on a machine

III. Providing opportunities in reading illustrations
  - A. Using direct teaching of illustrations in drafting
  - B. Having students draw working plans from pictures in catalogs, magazines, or actual objects
  - C. Showing students how to expand scale drawings to actual size and the reverse

IV. Encouraging the reading of catalogs, journals, and advertisements pertaining to the industrial arts
  - A. Providing a readily accessible shop library
  - B. Having students locate advertisements of needed materials
  - C. Writing descriptions of articles advertised
  - D. Comparing prices and specifications
  - E. Having students find in a catalog at least two of each article needed for each job and comparing them as to specifications, availability, and price
  - F. Helping students make up orders from catalogs for the hardware needed for a job[25]

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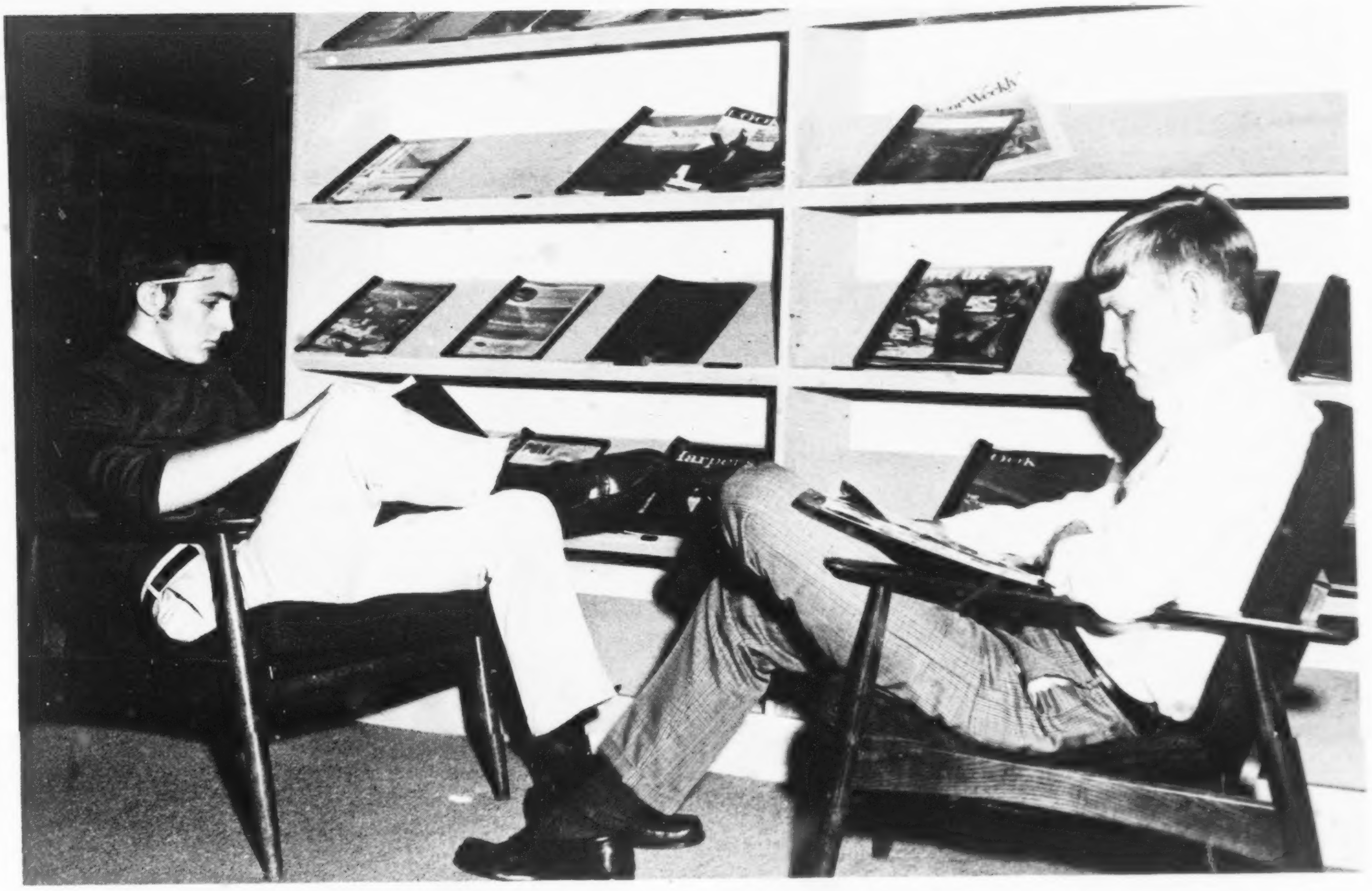
[25] *Ibid.*, p. 33.



CHAPTER NINE

Developing the Reading Interests and Habits of Secondary Students

Studies to determine reading interests of students have discovered few fresh facts since the peak research period during the 1920's and the 1930's. Yet constantly both parents and teachers still ask how they can interest students in reading in general and in reading certain books in particular.[1] Though not new, certain facts continue to be important to those concerned with promoting student interests in reading.

Reading interests vary somewhat according to materials available, geographical location, and methods of teaching; however, certain trends seem to be prevalent generally. Most students usually prefer fiction to non-fiction. Both boys and girls like comics, action, adventure, suspense, animal stories, mystery, humor, biography, and stories about other teenagers.[2] Students progressing from junior high to senior high become more interested in specialized subjects and non-fiction.[3]

Factors That Influence Reading Interests

Most studies point to certain factors which influence reading interests. Many stress the importance of age. Reading interests of young children are very different from those of older students. Young children prefer stories about animals, other children, and imaginative characters. Usually at about age nine interest in more realistic reading matter develops.[4] The differences in the reading interests of boys and girls become increasingly marked after the primary grades. Girls may read books boys like, but seldom do boys read books preferred by girls. The differences in reading tastes of each sex during teen-age years are very obvious. Adventure, science fiction, aviation, and animal stories are preferred by boys; while romances, poetry, stories of home and family life, and more adult literature are chosen by girls. These differences in reading interests lessen until they mirror the personality and taste of the individual more than the factor of sex.[5]

Though not as important a factor as age and sex, intelligence does have a part in influencing reading interests, especially among older youth whose increased intelligence brings about a breadth and depth of reading. Studies show that bright, average, and dull students express very similar taste preferences in reading materials.[6]

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[1] George D. Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963), p. 166.

[2] Ruth Strang, Constance M. McCullough, and Arthur E. Traxler, *The Improvement of Reading* (3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), p. 402.

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] Spache, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 166-67.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 168.

Range of Interests

Interests are selective determinants of behavior. They indicate the direction and the importance associated with activities in the individual's world. Interests are also valuable indicators of developmental maturity. In a given cultural environment, interest patterns undergo characteristic changes at different stages of development.[7] The range of the adolescents' interests is determined by intrinsic and extrinsic factors in their lives. These may be referred to as intelligence, general maturity, home background, previous experiences, and general and vocational interests.

The range of reading interests for students above average in intelligence, reading skills, and social status differs from that of students below average in some respects. For example, gifted and middle class students prefer magazines and books more sophisticated in reading content, while slower and lower middle class students prefer the more pictorial and sports-oriented books and magazines. The interest range of the latter groups is frequently more removed from literary interests than the former. Reluctant readers often show little or no interest in the printed page but get keen enjoyment from automobiles, mass media, spectator sports, part-time work, and club activities.[8]

Adolescents' range of reading interests is also a product of sex similarities and differences. Both boys and girls read extensively comic books, fiction, biography, and patriotic stories, and enjoy the newspaper most for its comics, sports, and display advertisements. Each sex, however, prefers biographies of people of his own sex. The scope of themes popular in the various mass media (television, radio, magazines, etc.) for boys and girls include adventure, humor, and love; but boys' greatest interest is in adventure; girls', in romance and adventure. Poetry and stories of family and fiction find a wider audience among girls; non-fiction, a wider audience among boys.[9]

Age, school achievement, and vocational interests further affect the breadth of reading interests. Girls thirteen or older relate to stories about dating, romance, and family relationships. At age thirteen, students' voluntary reading seems to reach its peak, decreasing rapidly from the seventh to the twelfth grade due to heavy homework assignments, changing personal interests, part-time work, and extracurricular activities.[10] Students in the high school years show an increasing interest in specialized subjects and non-fiction, thus reducing a wide range of interests in types of materials for recreational reading. Finally, avocational and vocational interests are strong determinants of types and amounts of reading which adolescents generally do.

Home, community, and school experiences help establish the range of teen-age reading to a degree. Parental concern for and knowledge of their children's needs determine the extent of the reading environment provided in the home. A similar concern results in a community's action in helping to provide reading materials for its citizens.

Of utmost importance is the influence of the school in developing and expanding the adolescent's reading interest range. The teacher is the force who can direct students' variety, quality, and quantity of reading. The teacher may foster positive or negative attitudes for reading.

Reading is undoubtedly one way to foster change and development in interest patterns. The secondary school curriculum should be designed to give the student the opportunity to read widely to extend his interests from a broad foundation. Such a foundation is needed to insure satisfactory adjustment in an adult world.

Discovering Reading Interests

Activities to determine interests show that both indirect and direct approaches can be useful. Specific and direct approaches which involve students in giving subjective information through interviews, statements, written answers to specific questions, and the like, about their interests in various books read may be more reliable and helpful.[11]

Among the widely used instruments to ascertain reading interests are checklists, questionnaires, and opinionnaires developed by teachers. These instruments should question a student's leisure time persuits, his job interests, the books and magazines he generally prefers, his travel interests and experiences, and his educational goals. Checklists of book titles may be designed to measure a student's range of interests and to ascertain the literary types which he generally prefers to read. Checklists of classified interests may also aid in ascertaining individual interests in reading.

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[7] Daniel P. Ausubel, *Theory and Problems of Adolescent Development* (New York: Grune and Stratton, 1962), pp. 292-293.

[8] Strang, *et al., op. cit.*, p. 399.

[9] Lawrence Carrillo, *Unit Seven: Reading Interests and Motivational Reading*, Reading Institute Extension Service (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., April 15, 1968), pp. 6-7.

[10] *Ibid.*

[11] Spache, *op. cit.*, p. 170.

Cumulative lists of books read by students provide another useful way of ascertaining interests. Diaries of voluntary reading kept over a long period of time often help to identify interests and measure personal development in and through reading. Informal interviews and conversations with students also help in identifying types and levels of interests.

Library circulation records may be a very useful and objective means of ascertaining interests.[12] One cannot assume, however, that just because a book has been checked out, it has been read in its entirety or even partially.

Promoting Interest in Reading

Since many young people today come from homes without reading habits, a wide variety of interesting reading material, or an importance placed on reading, one of the first steps in influencing these young people to read is demonstrating the values of developing the reading habit. Students must understand how reading helps them to develop both personally and academically. Therefore, schools must provide a planned program to stimulate interest in wide reading and to broaden the range of interests of all students. All curricular areas and reading programs must develop, at least to a minimum degree, the habit of voluntary reading. Students will often read if the material is interesting to them and is provided for them at their reading levels. Some students will need special motivation, however, and all will profit from guidance in their reading.

The most influential factor in promoting reading interests and developing the reading habit is the teacher. His enthusiasm for reading widely, for finding delight in new insights and new interpretations, and for sharing reading experiences with his students is contagious. He can introduce his students to these pleasures through methods of teaching which stimulate students to turn to books for vicarious experiences, to search for answers to perplexing questions in books, to evaluate sources of information, and to develop critical thinking through interaction in the classroom. Subject matter of today is a basis for future knowledge, but far more important than a body of facts is a zest for finding desired information and the ability to carry out a self-directed search for this information.

The realization that reading has inspired one's actions or thoughts, given conviction to an outlook on some current problem, or sharpened one's perceptions in making value judgments is a vital step in the formation of permanent reading interests and habits of secondary students.[13]

"Studies of reading habits of eleventh and twelfth graders during those years and later in adult life have indicated that permanent reading habits are established during the final years of high school."[14]

Factors which influence students *against* forming lifelong reading habits are a lack of happy reading experiences in the primary and upper grades, exclusive use of textbooks, little motivation through examples set by teachers, reading of classic literature for analytical exercises, and failure to use contemporary media to popularize books.[15]

The factors which influence reading can act negatively or positively. When a student is rewarded for reading a book by the feeling of success and pleasure, he may then want to read another book. Since students in an average high school class have varied reading interests, some will read adult books. Others will prefer easier books written for high school students, various newspapers, and even comic books; and there will be a few students who prefer not to read anything.[16]

Effectively stimulating a broad range of reading interests must be the product of continued joint effort by reading teachers, subject area teachers, and librarians. Ideas or topics which relate to books for teen-agers may be visually depicted in classroom and library bulletin boards. Realia, displays, and browsing areas within the classroom and library may arouse students' interests and acquaint them with different topics and materials for reading.

Today's exposure to mass media can be another invaluable aid for broadening interests and stimulating the reading habit. Reading to compare the book format with the televised presentation, to secure additional information on topics introduced through the media, and to follow-up a visualized situation may be the direct result of intensified motivation. When such reading can be related to similar emotions or events in students' lives, the experience has increased depth of meaning.

The availability and accessibility of materials are another influential means of promoting interest. A wide range of materials must be available in all classrooms as well as in the more formal collection in the library or materials center. These materials should be attractive, on varying levels, and related to many facets of the subject matter studied in the classrooms. Reading materials in the classrooms may be obtained from the instructional materials center and should be changed periodically. Access to a good collection of paperback books, both for borrowing and purchasing, encourages the young reader who seems to find a special appeal in the size and flexibility of such books. Prices of paperbacks make it possible for young people to build personal collections of books.

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[12] Strang, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, pp. 403-403.

[13] Robert Karlin, *Teaching Reading in High School* (Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill, 1964), p. 216.

[14] Dianne W. Coggins, "Selection and Use of Library Materials in the Recreational Reading Program," *Fostering Reading Interests and Tastes* (Columbia, South Carolina: School of Education, University of South Carolina, 1963), p. 52.

[15] Spache, *op. cit.*, p. 168.

[16] Karlin, *op. cit.*, pp. 205-206.

Expanded hours of library service, coupled with a friendly and inviting atmosphere, can do much to build reading interests and to develop the reading habit. The library staff attuned to the interests of the student body can provide interesting annotated bibliographies concerning special interests. Displays of books and materials, in connection with such bibliographies, often provide motivation for students difficult to interest in reading.

The newspaper may also be helpful in developing reading interests and habits of secondary students. With proper use, the newspaper may become quite a versatile media of learning in the school. This "ever-changing textbook" is one of the best means of lessening the gap between the texts of today and tomorrow. Furthermore, the newspaper is an up-to-date record of many events which are of interest to maturing young people.

The newspaper may be used as an activational tool in the study of local and state government and politics, as a guide in career planning, as a classroom source material in social studies, and as an excellent tool for teaching basic reading skills in corrective and remedial reading classes. In such reading classes, the newspaper can be a most practical material for teaching skills and at the same time help the student acquire the lifelong habit of newspaper reading.

A "hit parade of books" popular with students is still another way of enticing readers. Signed book reviews by fellow students also attract classmates. Sharing in the preparation of displays related to books creates the desire to read. Group projects in making world or regional maps which identify literary settings or locales of authors of popular literary selections for youth tend to arouse and broaden interests.

The organization of discussion groups appeals to many young people. The Junior Great Books Program for able readers has proven most effective in extending student interests and encouraging the development of the lifetime reading habit. For those who prefer less classical and challenging material, debating teams or teen-age reading clubs serve the purpose of deepening personal pleasure in reading and stretching mental muscles.

Providing a time for students to share individually and collectively books that they have read and enjoyed is another way to stimulate a wide range of interests in reading. Formal, stereotyped book reports should be replaced with creative book sharing experiences in which students explain their reactions to reading a particular book. Students can share books in most unique ways when they are encouraged to do so. (See Appendix E.)

Reading aloud to secondary students may also stimulate interest in reading poems, fiction, drama, biography, and other literary types. Hearing scenes filled with action and description read aloud from a work, such as a Shakespearean play, is often an enticing way to motivate reading.

Keeping individual reading records of books read may encourage reading on many topics, thereby broadening interests. Reading record forms, such as "My Reading Design," are available from Reading Circle, Inc., North Manchester, Indiana.

Class time for free reading, scheduled periodically as an integral part of the learning experiences in reading or subject area classes, may contribute significantly to building reading interests and habits. Recreational reading should be a planned classroom activity, not one that is given as a homework assignment, slipped in when all other work is completed.

Teaching students the following techniques of selecting appropriate books may broaden interests and stimulate reading.

1. Have students select a paragraph at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the book; then have them read these paragraphs to themselves or to the teacher.
2. Have students count the number of words that they could not attack or understand.
3. Have students count the number of sentences which they could not understand fully.
4. Then have the students decide whether or not the book they chose is too difficult for them to read and understand with enjoyment. If they had difficulty with three or four words in a paragraph, suggest choosing another book. If they knew all the words but did not understand the content, suggest choosing another book.

Finally, teachers and librarians might explore with students materials which deal with problems that students have. With guidance, students can be encouraged to read books and other materials to discover how a fictional or real character handled a situation or crisis similar to theirs.

CHAPTER TEN

Selecting and Using Instructional Materials

This chapter offers assistance to teachers, supervisors, and administrators who are seeking help in selecting suitable instructional materials to meet the varied reading needs of students in the secondary school reading program. Over the past ten years, instructional materials for secondary reading programs have improved considerably. This improvement is the result of the following changing concepts of reading:

1. The need for reading instruction for all secondary students from the most handicapped readers and lowest achievers to the most capable students is more clearly understood by educators.
2. The need for appropriate materials to provide meaningful practice activities for the development and enrichment of basic and functional reading skills at all levels is recognized by teachers, supervisors, and administrators.
3. The critical need for high-interest and low-vocabulary materials for handicapped, reluctant, and culturally disadvantaged students in the secondary school has been recognized by reading authorities and textbook publishers.[1]

As the reading program evolves and is modified in scope and design, alterations and adjustments in instructional materials must necessarily be made. Teachers, supervisors, and administrators should be constantly alert to the many new instructional materials that are being published for secondary reading programs. These materials should be carefully examined, evaluated, and even tested in pilot groups and classrooms before purchases are made for a school or school district.

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[1] Rosemary Green Wilson, "Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction in the Development of Basic Skills," in *Developing High School Reading Programs*, compiled by Mildred A. Dawson (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1967), p. 37.

Program Design

The first step in obtaining materials for a secondary reading program is to determine the two most basic of all factors involved: what students and what purposes? An analysis of the needs of the students and the knowledge and willingness of the instructional staff will determine whether a comprehensive, all-school program or a compromise reading program will be best suited. (See Chapter One for a description of these programs.)

After determining the type of reading program to be organized, another important step to be taken is selecting instructional materials, supplies, and equipment most suitable for implementing the program. For developing an effective program at the secondary level, materials related to the instructional purposes and students' needs must be selected; success is unobtainable otherwise.

Personnel Involvement

Regardless of the scope of the reading program in a school, there are certain persons who must be involved in the selection of materials. The teacher who will work with the materials comes first; he must study the materials carefully and even experiment with many of them. The teacher must rely upon the guidance and support of administrators, the reading supervisor (if there is one), the director of curriculum for the school system, and the librarian in his own school for help in selecting materials. The administrator's support in beginning the program is twofold: authoritative support in both planning and implementation and financial support in providing materials and space. The reading supervisor, the curriculum director, and the librarian must serve as resource personnel to teachers who are selecting materials. They should have extensive knowledge about materials and maintain listings of available materials, with annotations describing the type and use of the material, the reading level, the interest level, and the skills included. Increasing emphasis must be given to the role of the librarian in keeping up-to-date selection aids and professional books that provide information on materials for teaching basic and functional reading skills in both reading and content area classes. (See Appendix H.)

Placement Analysts

The flood of secondary reading materials on the market today ranges in quality from excellent to objectionable. Detailed and careful evaluation of these materials is extremely important and requires the pooled skills of all related persons. In selecting materials for the reading program, care should be taken to omit duplication. Any material presently in use in other instructional areas should be omitted from those materials selected for use in a special reading class. It should be noted, however, that some of the same materials used at grade levels in the upper elementary or junior high school are often properly selected for use in corrective and remedial senior high school reading classes. Care should be taken to avoid repetition from grade to grade, class to class, and subject to subject. Also, the interest and reading levels of these materials must fit the interest and reading levels of the students. There is enough appropriate material available to enable selection of materials that have not been previously used. Indeed, secondary teachers, supervisors, and administrators must become placement analysts in selecting and placing "the right material for the right student at the right time."

Difficulty Levels

Since the range of reading abilities is very wide in most secondary classes, it is important to determine the difficulty of materials to be used. To develop basic skills and maintain reading interests, the readability of a book and the reading abilities of the student must correlate or his interest and progress will lag. Knowing the readability of materials is essential to selecting materials to be used at the instructional reading level for basic skills development which is guided by the teacher. Likewise, it is essential to know the readability of a book in order to recommend materials for recreational and pleasure reading and for follow-up skills activities at the independent reading level.

There are several ways of determining the levels of difficulty of materials. Probably the most commonly used are the evaluations of the publishers and annotations in standard selection aids. However, it must be noted that all books evaluated at a particular level of difficulty are not equally easy to read. In this instance, the opinion of teachers who have used various texts is invaluable. Formulas are also most valuable in determining the readability of materials. Some of the readability formulas useful at the secondary level are the Dale-Chall Formula, the Flesch Formula, the Fry Graph of Readability, the Gunning Readability Formula, the Lorge Formula, and the Reading-Ease Calculator. Some of the factors which are included in determining the readability of a book are the following:[2]

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[2] Florida State Department of Education, *A Guide . . . Reading in Florida Secondary Schools* (Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education, 1966), p. 142.

1. Frequency of repetition of words
2. Difficulty of words
3. Percentage of different words
4. Multi-syllabic words
5. Average sentence length
6. Density of ideas
7. Reader's familiarity with material
8. Interest appeal

One quick formula useful in estimating readability is the Gunning Formula which follows. Sources of other formulas mentioned are found in Appendix K.

Gunning Readability Formula[3]

1. Select a sample of 100 words.
2. Find the average sentence length.
3. Count the number of words of three syllables or over. (Do not count proper nouns, easy compound words like "book-keeper," or verb forms in which the third syllable is merely the ending, as, for example, "directed.")
4. Add average sentence length to the number of "hard words."
5. Multiply the sum by .4 (four tenths). This gives the Fog Index.

The equation for step four and five is:

Number of "hard words" plus average number of words per sentence

Sum of the above multiplied by .4 (four tenths) = Fog Index.

Fog Index comparison:

College, freshmen to graduates	13-17
High School, freshmen to seniors	9-12
Eighth Grade	8
Seventh Grade	7
Sixth Grade	6
Fifth Grade	5
Fourth Grade	4
Third Grade	3
Second Grade	2

Variety of Materials

Attention should be given at this point to the variety of materials needed to implement a good reading program. As in all academic areas, *one text per student is not enough.* For an effective secondary reading program, an extensive and varied supply of worthwhile materials—books, films, filmstrips, skill-building workbooks and kits, magazines, games, recordings, books for recreational reading, and a limited amount of equipment—must be made available. This variety not only enables the teacher to fit the materials to the specific needs of each student but also encourages the student to grow through self-selection and self-evaluation. Materials for skill-building, directed reading activities, and recreational reading activities in each class must afford a balance between skills and practice.

Criteria for Selection

In achieving a balanced variety of reading materials, each item must be evaluated as an individual tool, as well as in relation to other materials of a similar type. A thorough review of many materials is essential before selections are made. The following criteria are suggested as guidelines for selecting appropriate materials.

1. Select materials to fit the needs and objectives of the individual program design. (See "Types of Reading Programs.")
2. Select a variety of materials with balance between skills and practice.
3. Select a wide range of materials of varying difficulty levels representative of the students' achievement.
4. Select materials that will meet realistic needs and interests of the students concerned.
5. Select materials that cover the complete range of reading skills.
6. Select many practice materials designed to strengthen individual skills.
7. Select recreational reading materials to promote enjoyment and the development of the lifetime reading habit.

With these general criteria in mind, other basic considerations are necessary for selecting suitable printed materials. Included are the following:

1. General information about materials
   a. Author—Is he an authority in his field?
   b. Publisher—Does this company have the reputation of furnishing quality material?
   c. Copyright——Is this the most up-to-date material of its kind?
   d. Cost—Is this piece of material worth its price in the overall budget in accomplishing the purposes of the reading program?
   e. Philosophy—Is this material in keeping with the philosophy of a good reading program?
2. Composition of material
   a. Appearance—Does this material have sufficient "eye-appeal" to motivate?
   b. Print—Does the size of the print meet the level of reading needs of the student?
   c. Durability—Will this material retain its attractiveness through constant and extended use?

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[3] Frank C. Lauback and Robert S. Lauback, *Toward World Literacy* (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1960), pp. 216-217. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

   d. Illustrations—Are the pictures, charts and graphs suitable to the context, student interests, and contemporary life?
   e. Format—Is this material manageable in size? Is the readability enhanced by the length of the lines, width of the margins, and white space on the page?

3. Content of material
   a. Organization—Does the text follow a systematic sequence or theme and is it adequately indexed?
   b. Reading Level—Is the difficulty level commensurate with the needs of the student who will use them?
   c. Glossary—Is a glossary included?
   d. Study Guide—Are study aids for the student included?
4. Aids for printed materials
   a. Teacher's Guide—Is there a manual for teachers and does it provide sound guidance in the use of the material?
   b. Answer Keys—Is the material self-checking to promote independent learning?
   c. Supplements—Are supplementary charts, illustrations, word cards, and the like available?
   d. Reviews—Does this material offer periodic review sections for reinforcement?
   e. Evaluation—Are check-tests, profile charts, and achievement scales provided to facilitate frequent evaluation?

Adjusting Materials to Student Needs

Materials in a reading class should be of a sufficient variety to meet the wide range of interests and skills needs of a typical class as shown in the Diagnostic Chart below. This is a representative sample of a group of students found in a ninth grade reading class. Composite scores cited are computed in percentiles and are based on a series of diagnostic measures.

An example of recommended starting materials to meet individual student needs according to the Diagnostic Chart might be:

For John—*Reading in Context* (Barnell Loft)

For Steve and Susan — *Webster's Dictionary Unit on Dictionary Skills* (American Book Company)

For Mary—*Learning Words* (Keystone Education Press)

All students, except John, would profit from a study of dictionary skills.

Students needing training in letter sounds (from Betty down, except Evan) could be grouped for intensive training in phonics. *Word Attack* (Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc.) and *Building Reading Skills* (McCormick-Mathers) might be used for meeting the needs of this small instructional group.

DIAGNOSTIC CHART
Ninth Grade Reading Class

	Reading Skills												
Students	Letter Sounds	Context Clues	Word Meaning	Dictionary Usage	Word Structure	Syllabication	Prefixes & Suffixes	Sentence Meaning	Paragraph Meaning	Inference	Sequence	Speed	Average
John	100	62	100	100	83	87	100	83	87	78	80	87	89
Steve	90	100	100	62	100	100	100	83	80	89	80	87	89
Mary	100	87	60	75	83	75	90	83	73	89	80	80	81
Tom	100	75	80	87	83	75	80	83	63	56	60	87	77
Jane	80	87	80	25	50	50	70	83	80	89	80	80	70
Butch	90	75	80	62	83	75	80	67	53	56	60	67	72
Susan	70	75	80	37	67	75	50	67	63	78	80	67	67
Betty	40	62	40	0	50	37	40	50	56	56	60	60	44
Evan	80	62	40	50	83	75	60	50	47	44	80	47	60
Fred	20	50	60	75	50	37	40	67	73	78	80	67	58
Bill	30	62	20	25	50	37	30	50	40	11	40	33	36
Mike	40	50	20	12	17	12	10	33	47	22	40	20	27
Becky	0	25	40	0	17	25	30	17	20	0	20	7	17
Cathy	20	37	40	0	0	12	20	17	27	11	0	7	16
Jim	10	12	20	12	17	0	0	33	13	11	0	7	11

All students need comprehension skills development and improvement. Directed reading activities to develop and extend certain specific comprehension skills as indicated on the Diagnostic Chart could be organized for three groups:

Group 1 — John through Butch
Group 2 — Susan through Fred
Group 3 — Bill through Jim

Group 1 might use *Vanguard* (Scott, Foresman and Company); Group 2, *Teen-Age Tales* (D. C. Heath and Company); and Group 3, *The Checkered Flag Series* (Field Educational Publications, Inc.). This grouping procedure, using various instructional materials, should be followed until every student masters the skills in which a weakness is shown on the Diagnostic Chart.

Materials listed in the above example are only illustrative of the many kinds of materials useful in a skills development program and are representative of the variety of quality materials available for secondary reading programs.

Teacher-Made Material

Commercially produced materials may be supplemented by teacher-made materials. Experience stories dictated by students and written by teachers should be used extensively with handicapped readers and reluctant learners. These students, with the help of the teacher, become authors of their own reading material. Thus, the vocabulary is generally within the reading range of the students and the material is highly motivating and interesting. The Blue Ridge High School in Seneca has used the experience story approach extensively. The experience stories of many students were recorded in a published booklet *Operation Double Quick-Step*. This approach was used to introduce reading vocabulary and skills in the students' personal language. Word recognition and comprehension activities based on these stories were developed. Finally, commercially prepared materials were used in this project to offer a broader language pattern and to develop additional reading skills and interests.

Teacher-prepared word cards, sentence and phrase strips, and mimeographed exercises are also useful in building basic skills and extending interest in reading, especially for reluctant learners. Also, textbook materials rewritten by the teacher on several levels of difficulty provide interesting and motivating instructional materials. Such materials allow an entire class of many reading levels to work together occasionally on one subject. Teacher-developed picture files are excellent motivating materials for discussions, creative writing, and experience stories. Teacher and student-made bulletin boards serve to create interest and to stimulate development in reading. Comic strips provide an excellent medium through which many reluctant readers and slow learners may be reached. Teachers may develop the comprehension of a sequence of events by clipping comic strips into sections and having students to arrange them in order. Comic strip sequences may be created by both teachers and students for picture reading that grows into discussions, experience stories, and booklets for reading.

With the help of modern office equipment, meaningful transparencies for the overhead projector may be prepared by teachers. Pertinent and exciting materials to fit precise needs and situations are thus made possible. Such materials reflect and increase the enthusiasm of students and teachers alike.

Professional Organizations and Publications — Aids in Materials Selection

In order to keep informed of the latest developments in instruction and materials in reading, it is essential for reading personnel to be active members of professional organizations and to read the periodicals published by these groups. The International Reading Association publishes three journals, two of which devote sections to the review of instructional materials. These two journals are *The Reading Teacher* and the *Journal of Reading*, each published eight times a year. The *Journal of Reading* is especially designed for secondary teachers. Another organization, the National Reading Conference, is largely concerned with reading at the secondary and college levels. Its publication, the *Journal of Reading Behavior*, provides secondary teachers with a keen insight into developments in both instruction and materials.

The National Society for the Study of Communication, which is of interest to colleges, technical schools, and industry, publishes quarterly *The Journal of Communication*. This journal is helpful to secondary reading teachers also. Many developments in instruction and materials are treated in this journal. The National Council of Teachers of English publishes *Elementary English, The English Journal*, and *College English*, all of which include articles about instruction and materials in reading. Of these three publications, *The English Journal* is designed primarily for the secondary teacher.

Additional publications containing information on instruction and materials of interest to secondary reading teachers are *English Highlights, Reading Improvement, Teacher's Notebook*, and *The Reading Newsreport*. Addresses for all the publications listed here are given in Appendix J.

It is desirable that reading teachers and supervisors be affiliated with both the local and national units of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and read its publication, *Educational Leadership*. Reviews of current instructional and supervisory practices and curriculum improvement activities are provided in this journal. Such reviews enable reading personnel to make more careful selections of materials to meet specialized needs.

Of vital importance to reading personnel is active participation in state and local reading organizations which keep abreast of trends and practices that affect the types of materials useful in various reading programs. Reading personnel should be members of the Department of Reading Teachers and Supervisors of the South Carolina Education Association and of local International Reading Association councils. Addresses for these and other professional organizations are found in Appendix J.

Lists of Instructional Materials and Equipment

Multi-media, multi-level materials and instructional equipment are readily available for purchase and use in secondary schools. To aid schools and school districts in the selection of appropriate materials and useful equipment, some selected items which have been used successfully in many secondary reading programs are annotated in the lists in Appendix G.

APPENDIX A

Reading Interest Questionnaire[1]

Although this form takes considerable time for a student to complete, an insight into a student's reading development can be clearly followed by having it filled out at various grade levels and then making comparisons.

Students should be helped to spell certain words or names while completing this form so that the student will not skip the item because he cannot spell the name of an encyclopedia or a magazine.

(Prepared by Arno Jewett, Specialist for Language Arts, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.)

What Do You Like to Read?

I. Reading at Home

A. Newspapers

1. To which newspaper(s) does your family subscribe? ____________________

____

2. How much time do you spend a day reading newspapers?

__________ minutes

3. List your three favorite sections of the newspaper:

a. ____________________

b. ____________________

c. ____________________

4. What two news topics are you following closely?

a. ____________________

b. ____________________

B. Magazines

1. What magazines do you read regularly in your home?

a. __________ c. __________

b. __________ d. __________

2. Which magazine has the most interesting stories? ____________________

____

3. What subjects do you like to read about in magazines? ____________________

____

C. Books

1. Approximately how many novels and biographies are there in your library at home? ____________________

2. How many of these books have you read? ____________________

3. Are you or your parents members of a book club? ____________________

4. How many books do you own personally? ____________________

II. Reading at the Public Library

A. Do you have a library card? __________; is it active? __________

B. About how many books have you checked out of the public library in the past year?

____

C. What magazines do you read at the public library? ____________________,

__________, __________

D. How many times a month do you go to the public library? ____________________

III. Use of the School Library

A. Do you know how to find books you want without the librarian's help? __________

B. What is the purpose of the Reader's Guide?

____

C. For what is the card catalogue used? __________

____

D. What encyclopedia do you refer to most often? ____________________

____

E. Do you have difficulty finding certain things in the library? __________

If so, what? ____________________

IV. Reading and Other Recreation

A. Write 1st, 2nd, and 3rd by your first, second, and third choice of these types of writing:

a. Novels __________ e. Articles __________

b. Short Stories ____ f. Comic Books ____

c. Plays __________ g. Biography ______

d. Poetry __________ h. News __________

B. Write the titles of three books which you have enjoyed this year:

a. __________ c. __________

b. __________

C. Write the title of the book you have enjoyed most of all:

____

D. Underline the four kinds of stories you like best and put a check before your favorite. If possible, write the title of a favorite story after each type you underline.

a. Animal __________

b. Action and adventure __________

c. Ghost and other mysteries __________

d. Humor __________

e. Romance or love __________

f. Modern science __________

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[1] Florida State Department of Education, *A Guide . . . Reading in Florida Secondary Schools* (Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education, 1966), pp. 146-148. Reprinted by permission of the Florida State Department of Education.

g. Mechanical things (airplanes, etc.) ____________
h. Foreign countries ____________
i. War stories ____________
j. Space travel or fiction ____________
k. Home life ____________
l. Interesting people ____________

E. What do you like to do best when you have free time? ____________

____

F. What kind of work do you want to do when you leave school? ____________

____

G. Whose recommendations do you usually follow when you read a book? ____________

____

H. Do you have your own personal library at home? ____________
If so, how many books? ____________

I. Do you have a television set at home? ______
If you do, how much time do you spend daily watching television? ______ hours.

J. Have you read any books because of television shows you have seen? ____________
If so, name them. ____________

K. As you know, some young people like to read books during their spare time; others don't. Why do you think some teenagers enjoy reading books when they have time?

____________.

____________.

APPENDIX B

Reading and Study Skills Questionnaire

Name ____________ Date ______.
Address ____________ Birth Date ______.
Telephone Number ____________ School ______.
High School Course (check) : Academic ______.
Business Education ______ Vocational ______.
What subjects do you like best? ____________

____
What subjects do you like least? ____________
What are your career goals? ____________

____________.

Answer these questions by checking *Yes* or *No*:

Yes No

Do you like to read? ____ ____.
A. Do you do less recreational reading than you did two years ago? ____ ____
B. Do you do more non-recreational reading than you did two years ago? ____ ____

Do you believe you are a slow reader? ____ ____
Do you believe that you spend too much time to complete an assignment? ____ ____
Do you have to re-read many times in order to understand what is in a selection? ____ ____
Is it necessary for you to read orally in order to understand difficult passages? ____ ____
Do you have difficulty with the pronunciation of new words in a selection? ____ ____
Do you find many words in a selection the meanings of which are not clear? ____ ____
Do you have difficulty remembering the details of a selection? ____ ____
Do you have difficulty in finding the main ideas developed in a selection? ____ ____
Do you know how to identify the main point in a selection? ____ ____
A. Do you find it easy for you to outline what you read? ____ ____
B. Do you find it helpful to outline what you have read? ____ ____
Do you read most materials at the same rate? ____ ____
Do you know how to take notes effectively? ____ ____
A. When listening? ____ ____
B. From non-fiction books? ____ ____
C. From reference books? ____ ____
During study and/or work hours, do you postpone reading activities until last? ____ ____
Are you conscious of your eyes after an hour of continuous reading? ____ ____
A. Do you have headaches after continuous reading? ____ ____
B. Do you have headaches after a movie? ____ ____
C. When was the last time you had a complete visual examination?

____
D. Do you wear glasses? ____ ____

Answer these questions in the space provided:

How many hours each day do you have for study purposes? ______

Do you feel that worrying about other problems makes it difficult for you to study?
rarely____ sometimes____ often____ usually____

Remarks: You may want to make some comments about reading and studying that may be helpful to the person evaluating this. If so, use the space below.

APPENDIX C

Sentence Completion Form[1]

Write exactly what you think in the following incomplete sentences. Do all of them and complete them in order as quickly as you can. Be sure to write exactly the way you feel or think.

1. Today I feel ______________________
2. When I have to read, I ______________________
3. I get angry when ______________________
4. To be grown-up is ______________________
5. I wish my parents knew ______________________
6. My idea of a good time is ______________________
7. School is ______________________
8. I wish my parents knew ______________________
9. I feel bad when ______________________
10. I wish teachers ______________________
11. I wish my mother ______________________
12. To me, books ______________________
13. People think I ______________________
14. I'd rather read than ______________________
15. I like to read about ______________________
16. To me, homework ______________________
17. The future looks ______________________
18. I hope I'll never ______________________
19. On weekends I ______________________
20. I wish people wouldn't ______________________
21. When I finish high school ______________________
22. I'm afraid ______________________
23. Comic books ______________________
24. When I take my report card home ______________________
25. I'm at my best when ______________________
26. Most brothers and sisters ______________________
27. I look forward to ______________________
28. I wish ______________________
29. I don't know how ______________________
30. When I read aloud ______________________
31. I'd read more if ______________________
32. I feel proud when ______________________
33. My only regret ______________________
34. I look forward to ______________________
35. I often worry about ______________________
36. I wish I could ______________________
37. I would like to be ______________________
38. I like to read when ______________________
39. For me, studying ______________________
40. I wish my father ______________________
41. When I'm alone ______________________
42. Sometimes I think ______________________
43. I'm happiest when ______________________

APPENDIX D

Suggested Questions for Interviews[1]

Secondary teachers may find interviews with students, parents, or both helpful in assessing individual needs and identifying reading difficulties of the handicapped reader. The following questions are suggested for use in interviews, with the situation determining which questions to be used.

"1. Who are the other people in the home? What are their ages? How much education have they had? Which ones work? What are their outstanding traits?

2. What is the social and economic status of the family? How large is the family income? What sort of house and what sort of neighborhood do they live in? Are they living at a poverty, marginal, adequate, comfortable, or luxurious level? Has the status of the family changed markedly since the child's birth?

3. How adequate is the physical care given the child? Is he provided with suitable food and clothing? Does he get proper attention when sick? Have his physical defects been corrected?

4. What intellectual stimulation is provided in the home? What language is spoken? How cultured are the parents and other members of the family? What newspapers, magazines, and books are available in the home? How much has the child been encouraged to read?

5. How is the child treated by his parents? Do they love him, or are there indications of rejection or of marked preference for other children? What disciplinary procedure do they use? Do they compare him unfavorably with other children or regard him as stupid? Are they greatly disappointed in him?

6. How is the child treated by his brothers and sisters? What do they think about him? Do they boss him or tease him about his poor ability?

7. How does the child feel about his family? Does he feel neglected or mistreated? Has he feelings of hatred or resentment against members of his family? Does he resort to undesirable behavior in order to get attention?

8. What efforts have been made to help him at home with his school work? Who has worked with him? What methods have been used? How has the child responded to this help?

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[1] Adapted from: Thomas Boning and Richard Boning, "I'd Rather Read Than," *The Reading Teacher*, X (April, 1957), p. 197.

[1] Reprinted from: Albert J. Harris, *How to Increase Reading Ability: A Guide to Developmental and Remedial Methods* (4th ed.; New York: Copyright © 1961 by David McKay Company, pp. 272-273. Reprinted by permission of author and publisher.

What have the results been?

9. How does the child spend his spare time? What interests does he show? Does he have any hobbies? Does he show any special talent? What are his goals for the future?
10. Who are his friends, what are they like, and how does he get along with them? Does he play by himself? Does he prefer younger children? Is he a leader or a follower?
11. What signs of emotional maladjustment does he show? Has he any specific nervous habits? Is he a poor eater or poor sleeper? What variations from normal emotional behavior does he show?
12. How does he feel about himself? Has he resigned himself to being stupid? Does he give evidence of open feelings of inferiority and discouragement? If not, what substitute forms of behavior has he adopted?

APPENDIX E

Creative Ways to Share Books[1]

Providing interesting and stimulating ways to share books is a challenge to the secondary teacher. Many teachers are using creative ideas for book sharing to replace the more conventional and stereotyped book report. The following creative book sharing experiences have been found helpful for encouraging interest in reading and motivating students to think critically about their reading experiences. Teachers should review this list and make use of those ways that seem appropriate to the reading levels, experiences, and maturity of their students.

IMAGINARY DIARY. Keep a diary written by one character of the book.

IMAGINARY LETTER. Write a letter as though one character has written to another.

CONVERSATION. Present conversation that might take place between the characters in two different books.

TRANSPARENCIES. Have a student to develop transparencies to illustrate his book.

HEADLINED NEWSPAPER REPORT. Select some event in the book and develop newspaper headlines.

FILMSTRIP OR MOUNTED PICTURES. Use a filmstrip or mounted picture to illustrate a book talk.

OVERHEAD PROJECTOR. Use the overhead projector to show illustrations from a book while the student talks about it.

SKIT, WITH COSTUMES. Illustrate in a skit some dramatic part of the book.

POSTERS. Use posters to illustrate characters, map of county or locale, or some scene in book. (These should be accompanied by an analytical talk.)

IMAGINARY NEWS CORRESPONDENT TELEVISION REPORT. Act as a news correspondent and give the highlights of the book.

ILLUSTRATED BOOK REVIEW. Give a brief synopsis of a book illustrated with pictures.

A TELEVISION QUIZ PROGRAM. Have a student to give his views of a book through an interview by other students.

MOCK RADIO SHOW. Rewrite several scenes of the book as short radio plays.

A TABLEAUX. Make a tableaux that represents scenes from a book.

A SALES-TALK TECHNIQUE. Have a student to give a sales talk on the book in a designated length of time. His talk should be aimed at encouraging others to read the book that he has just read.

IMAGINARY TELEPHONE CONVERSATION. Conduct an imaginary conversation between two historical characters during which part of the content of the book read is revealed.

A TALK based on one or more of the following questions: If such an experience happened to me, what would I have done? Do I know anyone like the people in the story? Would I like to be like the book character? Have I ever seen anything like this happen?

A DIORAMA. Plan a diorama representing various book events.

PANEL DISCUSSIONS. Hold panel discussions about several books of the same kind (biography, historical novel, and others), or on the same subject (sports, American Revolution, and the like), followed by questions from the class.

GENERAL CLASS DISCUSSIONS. Hold general discussions on various books concerned with the same interest; i.e., books about sports which might include fiction, biography, and informational biography, plays, poetry, essays, and others.

DEBATE. Hold a debate on a topic such as "Resolved that the reading of travel books is more broadening to the mind than the reading of biography," with students giving examples from books they have read.

PUPPETRY. Make hand puppets to dramatize the action of the story.

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[1] Adapted from: Betty Martin, ed., *Using the Media Center: Guidelines for Teachers and Media Specialists* (2nd ed. rev.; Greenville, South Carolina: School District of Greenville County, 1968), pp. 55-59. Used by permission of the editor.

READING OF BEST-LIKED CHAPTERS AND PAGES. Have students to read best-liked chapters or pages and give a brief summary of the preceding part of the book.

FIVE-MINUTE TALKS. Have a student to give a five-minute talk about a book he has read in an effort to get the class members to vote for his book for Book-of-the-Month selection.

A LETTER. Write a letter to the author, stating why the book was enjoyed and suggesting improvements.

A DISCUSSION OF THE BOOK. Discuss the book and give a description of what could happen after the story ends.

A WRITTEN ADVERTISEMENT. Using an advertisement, stress the good features of the book.

"LIFE" STORY. Imagine that *Life Magazine* is doing a feature story on the book, and describe the photographs that the author might take and write captions for each.

LETTER. Write a letter to a foreign student and tell why the book is or is not representative of American life.

ANALYSIS BY A MAN OF THE FUTURE. In a time capsule or in the ruins on the planet Earth, some man of the future finds the book and writes a paper on what it reveals of life of an earlier time.

A LETTER WRITTEN IN THE ROLE OF A BOOK CHARACTER. Example: The hero of *Lost Horizon* writes a letter about his final return to Shangri-La, explaining his purposes and his hopes for the future.

THE SCHOLARLY CRITICAL PAPER. Honors and advanced classes may combine research on "what the critics and authorities think of the author" with critical opinion on "what I think about those of his books which I have read."

ROUND-TABLE DISCUSSION UNDER A STUDENT CHAIRMAN. Have four or five students to read the same book. Part of a period is given before the day of reporting for each group to confer on questions for discussions.

GROUP PERFORMANCE IN THE STYLE OF "THIS IS YOUR LIFE." This procedure lends itself to reports on biographies.

REPORTER AT THE SCENE. While it's happening, a crucial scene from the book is described on the spot by a television or radio reporter.

THE TRIAL OF A MAJOR CHARACTER. Defendant, prosecuting attorney, defense attorney, and witnesses may participate in the case. The charge should preferably be one of acting unethically, unfairly, or even unwisely, rather than one of breaking a law.

THE AUTHOR MEETS THE CRITICS. Three, four, or five students may form a group. A student posing as Charles Dickens may defend his *Tale of Two Cities* against critics as they ask questions.

QUIZ PROGRAM. Use this when the class has read only one book, or when several groups have each read a single book. A quizmaster asks questions of two teams, each composed of half the class or group.

USE OF TAPE RECORDER. Students might tape a description of their books, and these are used for individual or group listening.

MONOLOGUE. Have students to present a monologue, such as "I am John Ridd, and I appear in a book that Blackmore wrote about Lorna Doone and me. I'm the kind of person who . . . ."

COUNSELING BY EXPERTS. A character explains his crucial problem to three social workers who specialize in guidance, family counseling, and psychological rehabilitation. They ask questions and offer advice. Note that the "social workers" need not have read the book.

OUTLINE OF A TELEVISION OR MOTION-PICTURE VERSION. This may be oral or written, including major scenes, sets, casting, and other aspects. Students enjoy telling "how I would dramatize this book if I were a television or motion-picture producer."

MOVIE TRAILER OR PREVIEW OF COMING ATTRACTIONS. Each student clips magazine or newspaper pictures, or sketches his own, showing scenes similar to those of significant moments in his book. He displays the pictures in organized sequence and supplies a commentary on the action and characterization.

TWENTY QUESTIONS. This idea is most successful when subject is familiar to class. The reviewer chooses a fact from his book and the class must guess it in twenty questions to which the reviewer may answer only "yes" or "no."

SIMULATED INTERVIEW WITH AUTHOR. One pupil poses as author, another as interviewer.

OPAQUE PROJECTOR. Use the book or original illustrations with the opaque projector for class viewing.

ORIGINAL POEM. Have students to write an original poem about a main character or the story.

MAPS. Develop maps to use in tracing a route, indicating episodes, or showing landmarks.

PANTOMIME. Present characters in action. Audience participation might include guessing what they are doing. One student might tell a story while others act out the scenes.

CHALK-BOARD SKETCH. Have the artistically talented student to sketch scenes on the chalk-board as he talks about the book.

NOTE: Some of the above ideas were gathered from articles in *English Journal, Clearing House, High Points, Wilson Library Bulletin,* and *Elementary English.*

APPENDIX F

Standardized Tests and Other Evaluation Materials

I. *For Group Testing*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
(S) *American School Achievement Tests*: *American School Reading Test, Advanced* *American School Reading Test for Senior High Schools & College Freshmen*	Vocabulary Comprehension Rate	7-8-9 10-13	40-50	2	1960	2
(S) *Buffalo Reading Test for Speed and Comprehension*	Rate Comprehension	7-16		2	1944	16
(S-D) *California Achievement Tests*: Advanced Battery: Reading 1963 norms	Vocabulary Comprehension (subtests in each part)	9-14	20-50	W X Y	1957	5
(I) (D) *California Language Perception* The purpose of language perception tests is to identify certain of the major components that have been found to be important in the reading process. This test is based on work of Dr. Jack Holmes and Dr. Harry Singer, authors of substrata theory. This new instrument is being reported for examination and study.	16 tests: Word embedded— Figure & ground Symbol closure Reversals Word Discrimination Phrase Discrimination Word Recognition	7-12	5 6 6 3 2 2 untimed	Series EJ Form A	1965	6
(D) *California Phonics Survey*	75 items to test Phonic adequacy: Long-short vowels Other vowel confusions Configuration Reversals Confusion—blends, digraphs	7-college	40	F-1 F-2	1962	5

(Semi-D) *Cooperative English Tests*: Reading Comprehension Part I—Vocabulary— Part II—Reading— English Expression Part I—Effectiveness— Part II—Mechanics— Level 1—College Level 2—High School	Vocabulary Level of comprehension Speed of comprehension	9-college	15 25 15 25	1A, 1B college forms 2A, 2B 2C High School forms	1960	13
(S) *Davis Reading Test* Series I—11-13 Series II—8-11	Level and speed of comprehension in difficult material (speed of comprehension has been corrected for chance success) Skills covered: Details, Central thought, Inference, Tone Mood, Literary devices, Structure of org.	8-11 11-13	40	Series I— Forms 1A 1B 1C 1C 1D Series II— Forms 2A 2B 2C 2D	1962 1943	35
(S) *Detroit Reading Test* Test I—grade 2 Test II—grade 3 Test III—grades 4-6 Test IV—grades 7-9 (old, but expedient test)	Quick survey tests of silent reading for preliminary classification of pupils	2-9	8	4	1927	20
(S) (D) *Diagnostic Reading Tests* Survey Section: Lower level (4-8) Booklet I—	(S) Booklet I— Skill in using phonics, context and word parts as clues to recognition and meanings of words, comprehension of simple literary, scientific and social studies selections	4-8	40		1963	7, 33
Booklet II—	Booklet II— General reading Vocabulary and rate of reading		40	A, B, C, D		
Upper level (7-College)		7-college	45-48	8		
Diagnostic Battery: Section I—Vocabulary Section II—Comprehension Part 1—Silent Part 2—Auditory Section III—Rates of Reading Part 1—General Part 2—Social Studies Part 3—Science Section IV—Word Attack Part 1—Oral Part 2—Silent	(D) Section I Vocabulary in grammar, math, science, social studies, literature Section II Silent— reading comprehension of textbook materials Auditory— measures comprehension of parallel material when these are read to the students Section III Part 1—measure of flexibility of reading skill		45 40 60 30 30 20 20 30 30	A-B		

Standardized Tests
and
Other Evaluation Materials

I. *For Group Testing*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
	Parts 2 & 3—reading rate and comprehension of continuous material from content fields					
(D) *Durost—Center Word Mastery Test*	General vocabulary Ability to use context to obtain meanings	9-12	60	1	1952	20
(S) (Semi-D) *Gates-MacGinite Reading Tests* Primary A—grade 1 Primary B—grade 2 Primary C—grade 3 Primary CS—grade 2^2-3 Survey D Survey E Survey F (in preparation)	Speed Vocabulary Comprehension (These tests will replace *Gates Reading Survey* grades 4-10)	D 4-5-6 E 7-8-9 F 11-12	30-60	A-1, 2 B-1, 2 C-1, 2 CS-1, 2, 3 D-1, 2, 3 E-1, 2, 3	1965	3
(S) *Iowa Tests of Basic Skills*		3-9		2	1964	21
Test V—	V—Vocabulary		17			
Test R—	R—Reading Comprehension		55			
Test W— (norms available)	W—Work-Study Skills		80			
Tests for all grades in one reusable booklet.						
Iowa Silent Reading Test (New Edition) (Semi-D)	Comprehension Rate Skills in locating information Word meaning	4-8 9-10	45-60	4	1956	20
(S) *Iowa Tests of Educational Development*	Tests—	9-12		x-4 y-4	1963	33
	1—*Understanding Basic Social Concepts*		55			
	2—*Background in Natural Sciences*		60			
	3—*Correctness and Appropriateness of Expression*		60			
	4—*Ability to Do Quantitative Thinking*		65			
	5—*Ability to Interpret Reading Materials in the Social Studies*		60			
	6—*Ability to Interpret Reading Materials in the Natural Sciences*		60			
			50			

	7—*Ability to Interpret Literary Materials*		22			
	8—*General Vocabulary*		27			
	9—*Use of Sources of Information*					
(S) *Kelly-Green Reading Comprehension*	Comprehension Rate Directed reading Retention of details in content areas Reading	9-13	63	3	1955	20
(S) *Metropolitan Achievement Test Reading*	Vocabulary Paragraph	3-4 5-6 7-9		3	1960	20
(D) *McCullough-Word Analysis Test*: Experimental Edition 10 scores	Initial blends Diagraphs Phonetic discrimination Syllabication Root word, etc.	4-13	untimed	1	1962	18
(S) *Michigan Speed of Reading Test*	Rate of comprehension	6-16	35	2		35
(S) *Minnesota Reading Examinations for College Students*	Vocabulary Comprehension (may be used for high school seniors)	9-16	40	1	1935	37
(S) *Nelson Reading Test,* Revised Edition	Vocabulary Reading Comprehension: grasp general meaning, remembering details, predicting outcomes	3-9	30	2	1962	21
(S) *Nelson-Denny Reading Test,* Revised	Vocabulary Rate Comprehension	9-16	30	A B	1960	21
(S) *Nelson-Lohman* (identical to coordinated scales of attainment)	Good measure of ability to identify and to comprehend non-technical reading material (speed is minimal)	9-16	30	2	1960	20
(D) *Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests*	Subtests: word recognition in isolation and in context, reversals, word analysis by recognition, common word elements, syllabication, roots, etc.	3-6	45	2	1955	23
(S) *Schrammel-Gray High School and College Reading Test*	Comprehension (gross) Comprehension (efficiency) Rate	7-16		2	1940	30
(S) STEP: *Sequential Tests of Educational Progress* Reading Comprehension 9-11 English Expression 9-11 Dictionary Test 7-11		Level 1 13-14 Level 2 10-12 Level 3 7-9	essay 35 dictionary 30 comprehension	2	1963	13

Standardized Tests and Other Evaluation Materials

I. *For Group Testing*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
Literary Comprehension & Appreciation Test 9-12 Usage, Spelling, Vocabulary 7-13		Level 4 4-6	70 expression 40			
(S) *SRA Achievement Series*:				C	1964	33
Reading:				D		
1-2 Battery	Verbal pictorial association	1-2	240			
2-4 Battery	Language perception	2-4	270			
3-4 Battery	Vocabulary	3-4	240			
4-6 Battery	Comprehension	4-6	240			
4-9 Battery (multilevel edition)		4-9	360			
(New multilevel approach for grades 4-9; provides 3 tracks using a single test booklet)						
(S) *SRA Reading Record*	Rate Comprehension Every-day reading skills: Directory Map-table-graph Advertisements Index Vocabulary tests	7-12	40	1	1959	33
(S) *Stanford Achievement,* Revised					1964	20
Reading	Word meaning			A B		
Intermediate II Battery	Paragraph meaning	5-6	50	C		
Advanced Battery—	Paragraph meaning	7-9	35	D		
(S) *Test of Academic Progress*: Houghton (norms) Test IV—Reading (Each of Forms 1 and 2 purchased in reusable text booklets containing all tests of grade 9-12. Form 1 available in separate reusable booklets in each academic area.)	Identification Comprehension Application Evaluation	9-12		1 2	1965	21
(S) *Traxler Silent Reading Test*	Rate of reading Story comprehension Word meaning Power of comprehension	7-9	46	1 2	1942	2
Traxler High School Reading Test	Rate in social science material Ability to locate main ideas (30 paragraphs used) in social science and natural science materials	10-12	40	3 4	1967	

(S) *Van Wagenen Comprehensive Tests*	Central thought Details Index Inferences Interpretation	4-12	untimed	1	1953	38

S —Survey
D —Diagnostic
S-D—Semi-Diagnostic
I —Identification

Standardized Tests and Other Evaluation Materials

II. *For Individual Testing*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
Doren Diagnostic Reading Test of Word Recognition Skills Group or individual Test (Does not diagnose comprehension difficulties.)	390 items 11 subtests: Beginning sound Sight word Rhyming Whole word recognition Consonants, etc.	1-6 and up for diagnostic purposes Vocabulary of first grade second used	untimed, approximately 3 hrs.	1	1956	12
Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty **(New Edition)**	Silent and oral reading Listening Word recognition Visual memory or words Beginning and ending sounds Spelling tests (some tests are unstandardized)	1-6			1955	20
Durrell-Sullivan Capacity and *Achievement Tests,* Intermediate	Paragraph meaning Vocabulary	3-6	40		1962	20
Gates-McKillop Reading Diagnostic Test Form I—first diagnosis Form II—following some remedial work Test material: *reusable* *Required* pupil record book—*expendable*	I—Oral Reading II—Words flash presentation III—Words untimed presentation IV—Phrases flash presentation V—Knowledge of word parts VI—Recognizing the visual form of sounds VII—Auditory blending VIII—Supplementary Tests	1-up	no time limit	I II	1962	3

Standardized Tests and Other Evaluation Materials

II. *For Individual Testing*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
Gilmore Oral Reading Tests (Ten graded paragraphs of a continuous story. Grade scores yielded.)	Accuracy Comprehension Rate	1-8	15-20 usually required	A B	1952	20
Gray Oral Reading Tests, Revised Edition (No quantitive measure of comprehension offered.)	13 passages in each form: Purpose: Estimate proper placement in a reading group Assess general level of reading of a transfer student Aid in diagnosing reading difficulties	1-12		A B C D	1963	2
Roswell-Chall Auditory Blending Test	Ability to blend sounds auditorially into words	7-12	5	1	1963	14
Roswell-Chall Diagnostic Reading Test of Word Analysis Skills	Single consonant and vowels: Long and short Rule of silent *e* Syllabication	7-12	5	2	1959	14
Standardized Oral Reading Check Tests (10 paragraphs)		Set I 1-2 Set II 2-4 Set III 4-6 Set IV 6-8	3	2	1955	2
Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs (12 paragraphs arranged in order of increasing difficulty)	Accuracy Rate	1-8	5-10		1915	2
Leavell Analytical Oral Reading Test (Paragraphs arranged in order of difficulty, telling a continuous story.)	Rate Accuracy Comprehension	1-10	10	1	1953	12
Monroe Diagnostic Reading Examination (Battery—individually administered to poor readers of any age)	Word discrimination	1-12				34
Phonics Knowledge Survey Test	Surveys phonics understandings (orally administered)	4-up	10-30	1		3
Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales Yields three levels: Instructional—(oral reading)	Graduated Scales: 3 word recognition lists	1-8 Diagnostic for retarded readers	no limit		1963	5

Independent—(silent reading) (rate of silent reading optional) Potential—(auditory comprehension)	22 reading passages 6 phonics tests	9-12				
Stanford Diagnostic Phonics Survey, Research Edition	Relate printed sound to spoken sound	9-13		1	1958	8
Strang Reading Diagnostic Record for High School and College Students	Four oral reading paragraphs and a case history booklet	8-13				3
The Basic Sight Vocabulary Test on Basic Sight Vocabulary (Dolch)	100 double sheets, will test 25 individuals on 220 basic sight words	1-12	untimed		1942	17
Wide Range Achievement Test	An individual test of word recognition, Spelling, Arithmetic Computation	Kgn-12	20-40			35

III. *Informal Reading Inventories*

Botel Reading Inventory (reading instructional level placement of reading materials)	a. Phonics mastery consonants vowels syllabication nonsense words		15-25	1		15
	b. Word recognition		4-12	1		
	c. Word opposites (comprehension) Tests b, c yield free reading level highest potential level frustration level		20-30	2		
Graded Selections for Informal Reading Diagnosis by Nila B. Smith	Makes a functional inventory giving student's instructional level in reading and his skills in literal comprehension, in interpretation, and in word recognition	4-6 and up			1963	24
Standard Reading Inventory (Content based upon basal reading series of Allyn and Bacon, Inc. and Scott, Foresman and Company) Robert A. McCracken	—Recognition Vocabulary vocabulary in isolation vocabulary in context —Oral Errors word recognition errors in oral reading total errors in oral reading —Comprehension recall after oral and silent reading —Speed: oral silent	1-7		A B	1966	27

Standardized Tests
and
Other Evaluation Materials

IV. *Group Intelligence Tests*

Name	Abilities Measured	Publisher
California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity, 1963 Revision Level 2H — grades 6, 7 Level 3 — grades 7, 8 Level 4 — grades 9-12 Level 5 — College and Adult	Logical reasoning Numerical reasoning Verbal Concepts Memory	5
California Test of Mental Maturity, Long Form, 1963 Revision Level 3 — grades 7, 8, 9 Level 4 — grades 9-12 Level 5 — grades 12, College, Adult	Logical reasoning: opposites similarities analogies Spatial relationships: right, left manipulation of areas Numerical reasoning: number series numerical values number problems Verbal concepts: inferences verbal comprehension Memory: immediate recall delayed recall	5
Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability, Revised Intermediate — 6-9 High School — 9-12	90 items arranged in order of difficulty	21
Kulhman-Anderson Intelligence Tests, 7th Edition, 1960-63	Verbal, quantitative	26
Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests, Separate Level Edition: Levels 3, 4, and 5 Grades 4-12 Forms A and B	1961 Verbal battery: vocabulary verbal classification sentence completion arithmetic reasoning Levels 4 and 5 only: verbal analogy Nonverbal: pictorial classification pictorial analogy numerical relationships	26
Ohio State University Psychological Test, 1964 (Valid predictor of College success). 9—College freshman (No time limit, but usually requires 2 hours.)	Vocabulary Word Relationships Reading comprehension	33
Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Tests Beta—Grades 4-9 Gamma—High School and College	Verbal Nonverbal	22
Purdue Non-Language Tests *Independent of reading ability* Grades 9-12	Nonverbal	13

SCAT—*School and College Ability Tests* Level 1 — 12-College Level 2 — 10-12 Level 3 — 8-10 Level 4 — 6-8 (Replaces the American Council on Education Psychological Exam.)	Verbal score—60 items Quantitative score—50 items	
SRA—Primary Mental Abilities Test—New Edition Grades 6-9 Grades 9-12	Verbal meaning Number facility Reasoning Spatial	22
SRA—Tests of Education Ability (TEA) Grades 6-9 Grades 9-12		22
SRA—Tests of General Ability (TOGA) Grades 6-9 Grades 9-12		22

V. *Individually Administered Intelligence Tests*

(Administered by qualified person)

Name	Publisher
Revised Stanford - Binet Intelligence Scale, Kindergarten — 16	21
Weschler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS), 16 and up	35
Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), 5 - 15	35

VI. *Vocabulary Tests*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
Durost-Center Word Mastery (Percentiles given)	Part I: 100 word multiple-choice voice vocabulary test Part II: same 100 words used in meaningful sentences	9-13	60		1950	20
E.D.L. Word Clues Test (Grade-level percentiles given)	Series of 98 progressively difficult words Synonym is to be selected for the key word used in the context	7-13	45		1961	9
Every Pupil Scholarship Test (New forms issued twice a year)	Vocabulary recognition	7-12			1961	4
Iowa Tests of Educational Development; Test 8: General Vocabulary	Vocabulary recognition	9-12	22		1963	33
Kansas Vocabulary Test (percentile norms)	85 words tested		30		1948	4

Michigan Vocabulary Profile Test	Word meaning in: human relations commerce government physical science biological sciences mathematics fine arts sports	9-college	50		1949	20
Minnesota Reading Examination for College Students, Revised Edition	Test I: Vocabulary Test II: Paragraph reading	12-college	6 40	A B	1935	37
National Achievement Tests Vocabulary	Vocabulary recognition	7-12			1957	29
New Standard Vocabulary Test	Vocabulary recognition	7-12	20		1959	31
O'Rourke Survey Test of Vocabulary (Percentile tables for high school key and percentile scores furnished with test. Directions for administering are printed on test form itself.)	100 5-choice recognition items	9-adult	20	X-4		28
Schrammel-Wharton Vocabulary Test (percentile norms) Pressey-Thorndike word lists used	Vocabulary taken from subjects studied in junior and senior high school	7-12		2		4
Vocabulary Test for High School Students and College Freshmen (Traxler)	Diagnostic and corrective purposes, also for placement purposes.	9-13		2	1945	2
Wide Range Vocabulary Test	100 - multiple choice items Form B: order of difficulty Form C: alphabetical order	3-adult		2		35

VII. *Study Habits and Skills Tests*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
A Test of Study Skills (norms will be prepared when results are available)	Finding and understanding printed materials for critical thinking in the use of printed material	4-9	70	A B	1941	36

A Test on Use of the Dictionary (Spache)	Pronunciation Meaning Spelling Derivations Usage	9-13	30-40	1	1963	20
Bennett Library Usage Test (percentile norms given)	Use of Library	9-13	50	2		4
Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes (Validity data)	Surveys student's attitudes toward study as well as study practices	10-13	25-35	1	1956	35
California Study Methods Survey (separate scores and norms)	Personal adjustment Scholarly motivation Mechanics of study Planning and system	7-13	35-50	1	1958	5
Chicago Reading Tests: Study Skills	Comprehension Rate (all except 1-2) *Reading maps and graphs* (4-6) (6-8)	1-2 2-4 4-6 6-8	45	3	1940	19
Cooperative Tests: Dictionary (Percentile ranks for grades 7-8-9)	Alphabetization Pronunciation Meaning of derivations Spelling of words	7-12	30	1	1953	13
Nationwide Library Skills Examination (norms available following lists: new form issued each April.)		4-12	60	1	1963	11
Peabody Library Information Tests	Evaluates skill and information in use of library	4-6 9-12	80	Int. B	1964	1
Senior High School Library and Reference Skills Test	Alphabetization Use of Dictionary Card Catalogue Research Vocabulary Reference books Dewey Decimal System Periodicals	9-12	40-50	1	1960	25
Spitzer Study Skills Test	Use of: Dictionary Index Knowledge of sources of information Understanding graphs, map, tables Organization of facts in note-taking	9-13	150			20
SRA Achievement Test Series Test I-Work Study Skills (2 forms)	Subtests of basic references Table of contents Index Reading of graphs and tables	4-6 6-8 8-9	80	Int. B Adv. B	1964	33

Stanford Achievement Test Study Skills—3 forms		5-9 7-9				20
Study Habits Inventory, Revised Edition		12-16				8
Survey of Study Habits, Experimental Edition		8-14		1		10
The Iowa Tests of Educational Development: Test 9, Use of Sources of Information		9-12		2	1961	33
Tyler-Kimber Study Skills Test	Finding what you want in a book Using an index Using a general reference book Recognizing common abbreviations Using library card catalog Interpreting maps Current periodical literature Interpreting graphs	9-16	50	1	1937	8
Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal	Inference Recognition of assumptions Deduction Interpretation Evaluation of arguments	9-16	50	2	1964	20
Wrenn Study Habits Inventory	Analyzes specific study habits of an individual	9-13	25	1		35

Standardized Tests and Other Evaluation Materials

VIII. *Reading Versatility Tests*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
Appraisal of Reading Versatility	5 parts, each requiring a different reading purpose (available in paper and pencil form)	6-10		AA BB	1961	9
(Largely for use in individual self-evaluation)		10-16		CC DD		
Reading Versatility Test	Available in paper and pencil form. Also available as a test to be used in Reading Eye Camera.	6-10		AB	1961	9
(Standardization to establish grade equivalents and percentiles for all forms in process)		10-16		CD		
Tinker Speed of Reading Test	Rate	7-16		2	1955	37
(Group test)						

Standardized Tests and Other Evaluation Materials

IX. *Listening Tests*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
Brown-Carlson Listening Comprehension (Administered orally to groups)	Immediate recall Sequence of details Following directions Recognizing transitions Function of transitional words Recognizing word meanings Determining meaning from context Lecture comprehension Details Central idea Inference Organization Degree of relevancy	9-13	40-50	2	1955	20
Sequential Test of Educational Progress: Listening	Tests ability to understand what is read to them	7-14		3A 4A		12

X. *Personal-Social Adjustment and Interest Tests*

Name	Ability Measured	Grades or age level	Time (min.)	Forms	Date	Publisher
California Test of Personality (Revised)	16 scores: self-reliance sense of personal worth feeling of belonging, etc.	7-10 9-16	40-60	2	1953	5
California Occupational Interest Inventory	Ascendancy Responsibility Emotional Status Sociability	9-16	15-20		1963	20
Gordon Occupational Checklist (Designed for non-college bound) (no norms provided)	240 activities checked in areas: business outdoor arts technology service	8-12	20-25		1963	20
Gordon Personal Profile and Gordon Personal Inventory	Profile: 8 aspects of personality: ascendancy, responsibility, emotional stability sociability Inventory: Cautiousness Original Thinking Personal Relations Vigor	9-12			1963	20 20

Kuder Preference Records and Interest Surveys						33
Form E ------ *General Interest Survey* (Recommended for use with junior high school students as part of a comprehension exploratory program. Vocabulary is at the sixth grade level.)	Individual's degree of preference indicated in ten areas: outdoor, mechanical, scientific, computational, persuasive, clerical, artistic, literary, musical, social service,	7-12			1963	
Form D ------ *Occupational*	Provides a measure of interest with respect to a particular occupation	9-12			1963	
Mooney Problem Check List	Health, Physical Development: School Home and Family Money Work and the future Relationship to people Self-centered concerns	7-9 9-13	35-50		1950	35
SRA Youth Inventory	9 scores: School Future Myself People Home, etc.	7-12 9-12	40	A S	1960	33
SRA Junior Inventory		4-8				33
Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Men, Revised		11-12				32
Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women, Revised						
Thurstone Interest Schedule	Liking expressed for job or vocation (paired comparison check list)	9-16	20	1	1953	33
Thurstone Temperament Schedule	Survey traits: Active Vigorous Impulsive Dominant Stable Sociable Reflective	9-adult	20			33

XI. *Visual and Auditory Tests*

Some of the more adequate instruments for visual and auditory screening in connection with reading diagnosis are:

AMA Rating Reading Card — Tests visual acuity at reading distance.
(American Medical Association)

American Optical Sight Screener — A battery of screening tests and a variation of Massachusetts Vision Test using Snellen letters.
(American Optical Company)

Eames Eye Test, Revised Edition — A crude screening battery requiring no instrument; measures acuity, nearsightedness, farsightedness, muscular imbalance, fusion, astigmatism.
(Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.)

Keystone Tests of Visual Skills in Reading

Keystone Visual Survey Tests—for screening, not diagnosis
Needed:

- Telebinocular
- Series of slides
- Record forms
- Manual
- Keystone Tests of Binocular Skills

Keystone Visual Survey Services for Schools and Colleges
Needed:

- Telebinocular or periometer
- *Spache Binocular Reading Test*
- (Keystone View Company)

Maico Audiometer — Tests loudness and pitch and screens for defects in auditory acuity.
(Maico Electronics, Inc.)

Massachusetts Vision Test — (AO School Vision Screening Test)
(Massachusetts Department of Health)

Ortho-Rater — Tests acuity, binocular coordination, fushion at near and far point, depth preception, color vision.
May be administered by classroom teacher after a brief period of training.
Very useful for secondary students who are poor readers, and even non-readers. (Bausch and Lomb, Inc.)

Pre-Tests of Vision, Hearing and Motor Coordination — Tests acuity, muscle balance, fusion, depth, and color.
(California Test Bureau)

Snellen Chart — Tests nearsightedness.
(American Optical Company)

T/O School Vision Tester — Based on Massachusetts Vision Test.
(Titmus Optical Company, Inc.)

Additional Tests

Harris Tests of Lateral Dominance — (Psychological Corporation)

Wepman Test of Auditory Discrimination — Offers a forty-item auditory discrimination test.
(Language Research Association)

Though most schools have the services of a school nurse who uses the described devices, the teacher, after a short period of training, may also use them. She may supplement screening procedures to assess hearing difficulties by using the simple watch tick, the whisper test, or other measures. She may supplement vision screening devices by using the *Teacher's Guide to Vision Problems,* prepared by the American Optometric Association.

XII. Informal Appraisal Aids

Questionnaires and Checklists

Barbe, Walter B., *Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey:
Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961, pp. 131-206.

Checklists that include readiness to the sixth level of reading skills are included. They cover vocabulary, word attack, oral and silent reading and comprehension.

Reading, Autobiography, Themes, and Others

Strang, Ruth; McCullough, Constance M.; and Traxler, Arthur E.
The Improvement of Reading. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961, pp. 294-295; 314-317.

A sample reading autobiography is given. Possible implications of the information are also included.

Cumulative File Folders

Robinson, H. Alan, and Rauch, Sidney J. *Guiding the Reading Program.*
Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965, pp. 29-32.

A detailed example of a cumulative file folder is given, covering skills progress, tests administered, educational history, conferences, and instructional and recreational books read.

Test Publishers

1. American Guidance Service, Inc.
720 Washington Avenue, S.E.
Minneapolis, Minnesota
2. Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc.
4300 West 62nd Street
Indianapolis, Indiana 46206
(Public School Publishing Company
C. A. Gregory)
3. Bureau of Publications
Teachers College
Columbia University
525 West 120th Street
New York, New York 10027
4. Bureau of Educational Measurements
Kansas State Teachers College
Emporia, Kansas 66801
5. California Test Bureau
Del Monte Research Park
Monterey, California 93940
6. Church, Mr. Howard
Box 87
Pebble Beach, California
7. Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests
Mountain Home
North Carolina 28758
8. Consulting Psychologists Press
577 College Avenue
Palo Alto, California 94300
9. Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc.
284 Pulaski Road
Huntington, New York
10. Education Records Bureau
21 Audubon Avenue
New York, New York 10032
11. Educational Stimuli
2012 Hammond Avenue
Superior, Wisconsin
12. Educational Test Bureau
720 Washington Avenue, S.E.
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55414
13. Educational Testing Service
Cooperative Test Division
20 Nassaw Street
Princeton, New Jersey 08540
14. Essay Press
P.O. Box 5
Planetarium Station
New York 24, New York
15. Follett Publishing Company
1010 West Washington Boulevard
Chicago, Illinois 60607
16. Foster and Stewart Publishing Company
Buffalo, New York
17. Garrard Publishing Company
Champaign, Illinois
18. Ginn and Company
Statler Building, Back Bay
Post Office 191
Boston, Massachusetts 02117
19. E. M. Hale and Company
1201 South Hastings Way
Eau Claire, Wisconsin 54701
20. Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.
Test Division
757 Third Avenue
New York, New York 10017
21. Houghton Mifflin Company
2 Park Street
Boston, Massachusetts 02107
22. Language Research Associates
950 East 59th Street
Chicago, Illinois
23. Lyons and Carnahan
407 East 25th Street
Chicago 16, Illinois
24. New York University Press
32 Washington Place
New York, New York 10003
25. Perfection Form Company
214 West Eighth Street
Logan, Iowa
26. Personnel Press
Princeton, New Jersey 08540
27. Pioneer Printing Company
Bellingham, Washington 98225
28. Psychological Institute
Post Office Box 1118
Lake Alfred, Florida

29. Psychometric Affiliates
1743 Monterey
Chicago, Illinois 60643

30. Public School Publishing Company
204 West Mulberry Street
Bloomington, Illinois 61701

31. Readers' Digest Services, Inc.
Educational Division
Pleasantville, New York 10570

32. Stanford University Press
Stanford, California

33. Science Research Associates
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611

34. C. H. Stoelting Company
424 N. Homan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60624

35. The Psychological Corporation
304 East 45th Street
New York 17, New York 10017

36. The Steck Company
Box 16
Austin, Texas 78716

37. University of Minnesota Press
Minneapolis 14, Minnesota 55414

38. Van Wagenen Psycho-Educational Research Laboratories
1729 Irving Avenue
South Minneapolis, Minnesota 55405

Distributors of Testing Equipment

American Optical Company
Southbridge, Massachusetts

Bausch and Lomb, Inc.
Rochester, New York

Graybar Electric Company
New York, New York

Keystone View Company
Department RT 93
Meadville, Pennsylvania

Maico Electronics, Inc.
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Massachusetts Department of Health
Boston, Massachusetts

APPENDIX G

Instructional Materials and Equipment

I. Reading Skillbooks and Workbooks

Altic, Richard D. *Preface to Critical Reading.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston Company, 1951.

Planned to improve reading at mature levels. Includes work on connotation, denotation, diction, and various types of comprehension. Useful with students reading at the tenth grade level and above.

Bailey, Matilda, and Leavell, Ullin W. *Mastery of Reading.* New York: American Book Company, 1951.

Series of three books and workbooks. Many basic skills are treated. Useful with students reading at grade levels 7 through 9.

Benthul, Herman F., and Baldwin, Orrel T. *American Heroes All.* New York: Noble and Noble, 1965.

High interest materials, especially good for students interested in American historical heroes. Approximate reading level grades 7 through 9.

Berg, Paul C., and Spache, George D. *The Art of Efficient Reading.* 2nd ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

Advanced skill building in vocabulary and critical reading, offering help to the mature student in handling college resources. Level — 12 through 16.

Blake, Rachel E. *New Phonics Skilltext.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965.

Book D, levels 4, 5, and 6, presents sounds in poem context. A variety of exercises stresses word structure, comprehension, and phonic principles.

Bond, Guy L. *Developmental Reading Series,* Books 7 and 8, Classmate Edition. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1962.

Developmental readers which provide reading content at low vocabulary levels. Interesting content which appeals to mature students. All basic skills are stressed. Book 7, *A Call to Adventure,* is written at 4.7 reading level. Book 8, *Deeds of Men,* is written at 5.5 grade level.

Boning, Richard A. *Specific Skills Series.* Rockville Center, New York: Barnell Loft, Ltd., 1964.

"Using the Context," Books A-F, levels 1-6
"Working With Sounds," Books A-D, levels 1-4
"Following Directions," Books A-D, levels 1-4
"Locating the Answers," Books B-D, levels 2-4
"Getting the Facts," Books B-E, levels 2-5

Exercises may be used for review or reinforcement in high school remedial classes.

Brown, James I. *Efficient Reading.* Boston: D. C. Heath Company, 1952.

Offers sixty-five brief reading selections for rate and comprehension practice. Vocabulary and recall are tested. For use with very capable readers in the eleventh and twelfth grades.

Brownstein, Samuel C., and Weiner, Mitchel. *Barron's Vocabulary Builder*. Great Neck, New York: Barron's Educational Series, Inc.

Advanced study of words recommended for college bound. Complete vocabulary builder including roots, prefixes, suffixes, antonyms, synonyms, word relationships, and sentence completion. Senior high level.

Bushman, J. C., *et al. Scope Reading, Books I and II*. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1965.

Primarily intended to stimulate interest in reading at the junior and senior high school levels. Wide range of reading materials with comprehension questions, word quizzes, and a suggested topic for writing at the end of each reading selection. Reading levels: Book I - grades 7 through 9; Book II - grades 7 through 10.

Caughran, A. M., and Mountain, Lee Harrison. *High School Reading,* Books 1 and 2. New York: American Book Company, 1961.

Well-illustrated texts designed to build comprehension skills and to stimulate better reading and study habits. Vocabulary and interest levels, grades 9 through 12.

Caughran, Alex M., and Mountain, Lee Harrison. *Reading Skillbook I and II*. New York: American Book Company, 1965.

Developmental readers which subordinate the literary quality of its selections to its program of reading skills and exercises. Contains a balanced program of reading skills and how-to-study techniques.

Christ, Henry I., *et al. The New Companion Series: Adventures in Literature*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1968-1969.

Developed especially for the reluctant reader, this series is organized around types of literature and literary topics and themes. Most books contain short stories, stories of adventure, sports, mystery, true narratives, and other high-interest selections. Reading and writing skills are developed through reading with supplementary composition skills. Books available for grades 7 through 12.

Feigenbaum, Lawrence H. *Effective Reading*. New York: Globe Book Company, 1953.

Provides practice exercises in various reading skills and subject matter areas. Reading level —grade 9. Interest level—grade 9.

Feigenbaum, Lawrence H. *Successful Reading*. New York: Globe Book Company, 1958.

A reading skills text which gives practice exercises in subject areas, as well as in various reading skills. Reading level—grade 9. Interest level—grade 9.

Fry, Edward. *Reading Faster: A Drill Book*. New York: The Cambridge University Press, 1963.

Advanced study in speed and accuracy for the college bound high school student. High interest, timed articles, followed by comprehension tests.

Gainsburg, Joseph C. *Advanced Skills in Reading,* Books 1, 2 and 3. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1964.

A series of three books to be used sequentially in developing reading skills. Presents step-by-step procedures on how to read various kinds of materials. Basic reading skills are treated in the series. Reading levels—grades 7 through 9—approximately. Interest level — throughout high school.

Gainsburg, Joseph C., and Spenser, S. I. *Better Reading*. New York: Globe Book Company, 1962.

Provides exercises in developing main ideas, making inferences, outlining, and study skills. Useful as a remedial text.

Gainsburg, Joseph C., and Gordon, Lillian G. *Building Reading Confidence*. New Jersey: C. S. Hammond and Company.

Developmental reading textbook with emphasis on thinking. Analytical approach used. Reading and study skills in progressive levels of difficulty. Reading levels—grades 5 and 6. Recommended for junior high school.

Gates, Arthur I., and Peardon, Celesta. *Gates-Peardon Practice Exercises in Reading*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Remedial exercises in four basic skills; general significance of selection, predicting outcomes, understanding directions, and noting details. Recommended for strengthening comprehension.

Gershenfeld, Howard, and Burton, Ardis. *Stories for Teen-Agers,* Books I and II. New York: Globe Book Company, 1963.

Written primarily for the reluctant teen-age reader. Selections are grouped around themes of humor, personal experience, personal problems, and the like. Contains activities to develop comprehension, vocabulary, and rate of reading. Approximate level—grades 5 through 9.

Gilmartin, John G. *Words in Action, Gilmartin's Word Study, Increase Your Vocabulary,* and *Building Your Vocabulary*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950-1957.

This series attempts to offer the student a way to worthwhile written and oral vocabulary through the development of skill in using affixes and roots, figurative expressions, synonyms, and spelling. Self-checking.

Goldberg, Herman R., and Brumber, Winifred, eds. *The Job Ahead, New Rochester Occupational Reading Series.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1963.

A multi-level series with accompanying workbooks. Reading skills included are word recognition, spelling, vocabulary, word study, and comprehension. Level 1 is approximately grade 4; level 2, approximately grade 5; and level 3, approximately grades 7 through 9. Useful with reluctant readers.

Gray, William S., *et al. Basic Reading Skills for High School Use.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1958.

A workbook emphasizing word attack and comprehension skills. High interest content. Approximate reading level—grades 5 through 8.

Guiler, W. S., and Coleman, J. H. *Reading for Meaning Series.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1959.

Graded exercises, levels 4 through 12, emphasizing comprehension, vocabulary building, and rate. Self-directing, self-pacing, and self-checking.

Gunn, M. Agnella, *et al. The Ginn Basic Reading Program,* Grades 7, 8, 9. Boston: Ginn and Company.

Three books (*Discovery through Reading,* grade 7; *Exploration through Reading,* grade 8; and *Achievement through Reading,* grade 9) which emphasize developmental and functional reading skills plus recreational and enrichment reading through quality literary selections. Excellent emphasis on building basic skills for average and above average students.

Heavey, Regina, and Stewart, Harriet L. *Teen-Age Tales,* Books A, B, C and 1-6. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1966.

The series is designed to stimulate and motivate interest in reading and to provide a content and format directed to the social and psychological levels of high school students. The books follow a basal reader approach and provide for a sequential development of basic reading skills. Approximate reading levels range from grades 3 through 6.

Help Yourself to Improve Your Reading, Books 1 and 2. Pleasantville, New York: Reader's Digest Educational Division, 1962.

Designed to help students improve comprehension skills and reading rate. Selections lend themselves to follow-up discussions. Level 1 is approximately grade 7, and level 2 is approximately grade 8. Self-checking.

Hovious, Carol. *New Trails in Reading.* Boston: D. C. Heath Company, 1956.

Factual, human interest exercises which provide activities to develop basic study skills. Self-directing, self-pacing to promote independent work. Vocabulary level—grade 8. Interest level —through high school.

Humphreyville, F. T., and Fitzgerald, F. S. *Reading for Pleasure Series.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1963.

Three books in the series: *Top Flight, On Target,* and *In Orbit.* Designed to make reading a pleasure by providing easy reading and a high interest level content. Selections are short and appealing. Aids to facilitate reading of the selections are included in the back of the book.

Hurst, John A., and Tom, Judith J. *Famous Americans.* Chicago: Mid-Century Publishing Company, 1965.

Biographies written at seventh through ninth grade reading levels, geared to the reluctant reader.

Hutchinson, Mary M., and Brandon, Pauline R. *Gaining Independence in Reading Series.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1968.

The three books in the series, *Far Horizons, Bright Beacons,* and *New Landmarks,* are designed to provide instruction in basic reading and study skills. Useful as basic texts or as supplements to basic texts. High interest and low vocabulary content, with reading levels ranging from fifth to seventh grades.

Kottmeyer, William A., and Ware, Kay. *Conquests in Reading.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1968.

Remedial workbook for building phonetic, structural, and analytic abilities. Complete review text from beginning sounds to refined comprehension. Reading levels—grades 4 through 9.

Kottmeyer, William A., and Ware, Kay. *The Magic World of Dr. Spello.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1968.

Workbook for corrective program. Many basic reading essentials included. Recommended for remedial high school students. Reading level —grades 4 through 9.

Lerner, Lillian, and Moller, Margaret. *Vocational Reading Series.* Chicago: Follett Publishing Company.

Six paperback books to help motivate groping teen-agers to read and upgrade language and comprehension skills. Training requirements for nurse, auto mechanic, beautician, butcher, baker, chef, department store worker, and office worker included. Recommended for potential dropout in grades 7 through 12.

Lewis, Norman. *How to Read Better and Faster.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1958.

A step-by-step, day-by-day training manual in the techniques of rapid, skillful reading. For individual use in improving various reading rates and comprehension skills. Timed selections with self-checking comprehension activities.

Marcatante, John J., and Potter, Robert R. *American Folklore and Legends.* New York: Globe Book Company, 1967.

Collection of legends written to capture the interests of the adolescent. Selections are short enough to be read and discussed during a given reading period. Comprehension questions included. Readability level—grade 4.

McCall, William A., and Crabbs, Lelah Mae. *McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961.

Five books, levels 2 through 12, in graded comprehension exercises. Designed to improve speed and comprehension. Answer keys for self-checking.

Meighen, Mary, *et al. Phonics We Use.* Chicago, Illinois: Lyons and Carnahan.

With emphasis on sounds of letters and word parts, these workbooks, levels A through F, contain a complete phonics program for remedial students.

Miller, Lyle L. *Maintaining Reading Efficiency.* Laramie, Wyoming: Developmental Reading Distributors, 1966.

Developmental reading material which includes practices for improving comprehension and rate skills. Individual rate tables for computing reading rate included. For excellent readers at the senior high school level.

Miller, Lyle L. *Developing Reading Efficiency.* Laramie, Wyoming: Developmental Reading Distributors, 1962.

Workbook for developmental reading in grades 7 to 10. Contents include word recognition, word meaning, comprehension, and study skills.

Miller, Ward S. *Word Wealth Junior* and *Word Wealth.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1962 and 1967.

These books attempt to rouse student interest and curiosity about language. Lessons include studies of related meanings, shades of meaning, study of affixes, roots, synonyms and antonyms, and spelling. Readability level of *Word Wealth Junior* is grade 6.8; *Word Wealth,* grade 8.4.

Murphy, George, *et al. Let's Read.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1954.

Selections drawn from publications, such as *Boy's Life,* are adapted for remedial and corrective use. Comprehension tests follow each selection. Reading levels, grades 4 through 8, with the interest levels in the four books spanning the junior and senior high grades.

Neal, Emma, and Foster, Ines. *Developing Reading Skills.* New York: Laidlaw Brothers, 1963.

Specific skills lessons that may be used in most of the content areas. Three books (A, B, and C) for below average and average readers.

O'Donnell, Mabel; Jones, Daisy M.; and Cooper, J. Louis. *From Codes to Captains, Actors to Astronauts,* and *Coins to Kings.* Evanston, Illinois: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1963 and 1964.

Although for the intermediate grades, these high-interest, subject-matter reading books may be of value in higher grades, especially in remedial classes. Reading levels range from the fourth grade for *From Codes to Captains* to sixth grade for *Coins to Kings.*

Pooley, Robert C., *et al. Galaxy Series.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman, and Company, 1963-1967.

A series of anthologies *(Vanguard, Perspectives,* and *Accent: U.S.A.)* containing motivating and interesting selections. Developed to improve the reading skills of average or below average students in grades, 9, 10, and 11 who lack the desire or the necessary skills to become better readers. All basic reading skills emphasized. Coordinated with the *Tactics in Reading* materials.

Potter, Robert R. *Myths and Folk Tales Around the World.* New York: Globe Book Company, 1963.

Designed to help the reluctant reader meet thought-provoking material at reading levels which promote successful understanding. Short introductions and vocabulary study precede each unit. Comprehension questions included. Approximate reading level—grade 4.

Reader's Digest Skill Builders. Pleasantville, New York: Reader's Digest Educational Division.

Selection of articles and stories from *Reader's Digest* written at grade levels 1 through 9. High interest material especially good for the reluctant reader. Each selection is followed by comprehension and vocabulary building exercises.

Robbins, A. Allen. *Word Study for Improved Reading.* New York, New York: Globe Book Company, 1954.

Complete workbook of practice material in vocabulary development. Junior high school level.

Roberts, Clyde. *Word Attack, A Way to Better Reading.* New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1956.

Presents vocabulary building with five approaches: contextual, auditory, structural, visual, and kinesthetic. Excellent student practice activities included. Recommended as complete handbook.

Salisbury, Rachel. *Better Work Habits.* Chicago, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1932.

Contains detailed practice exercises on many different study skills. For use with average and above average students in grades 9 through 12.

Schumacher, Melba, *et al. Design for Good Reading,* Books 1, 2, and 3. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1962.

Designed to promote development in comprehension skills, rate of comprehension, and vocabulary knowledge. Reading level: grades 9 and 10 for Book 1 and grades 11 and 12 for Book 2.

Shafer, Robert E., and McDonald, Arthur S. *Success in Reading Series.* Morristown, New Jersey: Silver Burdett Company, 1967.

A developmental reading program to reinforce comprehension. Materials drawn from subject areas. Can be used with groups or individuals. High interest.

Simpson, Elizabeth. *Better Reading,* Books 1, 2, and 3. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965.

Excellent for improving rate of comprehension. Contains reading selections followed by comprehension and vocabulary questions. A time-to-rate conversion table included. Excellent for use with reading pacers. Reading levels: Book 1, grades 5 through 7; Book 2, grades 6 through 8; Book 3, grades 7 through 10.

Smith, Nila Banton. *Be a Better Reader Series.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.

Series deals with skills necessary for reading in math, science, social studies, and literature. Basic reading skills developed through appropriate questions with suggested activities following each. Reading levels range from grades 5 through 12 in the six books of the series.

Spiegler, Charles G., ed. *Merrill Mainstream Books.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1968.

Series of five paperback anthologies designed for students with limited backgrounds. Themes of stories relate to the needs of disadvantaged and reluctant learners. Reading level ranges from 4 through 7.5 grades, and interest level ranges from grades 7 through 12. Teacher's lesson guide available.

Stone, Clarence, *et al. New Practice Readers.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960.

Paperback books with three part lessons. Includes reading skills of word recognition and comprehension. Reading levels — grades 2.5 through 8.

Strang, Ruth. *Study Type of Reading Exercises for Secondary Schools.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.

Contains twenty exercises which demonstrate various reading skills and provide practice in those skills. Approximate reading level—grades 9 through 12.

Taylor, Stanford E., *et. al. EDL Word Clues.* Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc.

Books G through M, each containing thirty lessons, levels 7 through 13. Designed to reinforce and refine vocabulary. Self-pacing, self-checking.

Turner, Richard H. *Turner-Livingston Reading Series.* Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1962.

Series of six booklets, each consisting of 23 short episodes centered around the title. Basic comprehension and vocabulary skills included. Approximate reading levels—grades 7 through 9.

Wedeen, Shirley U. *College Remedial Reader.* New York: G. P. Putnam Sons, 1959.

Designed to be used with study-type developmental reading courses for advanced students. Reading selections are taken from advanced secondary and college level textbooks.

Wilkinson, Helen, and Brown, Bertha D. *Improving Your Reading.* New York: Noble and Noble, 1964.

Covers the basic skills of word recognition, vocabulary, and comprehension. Very useful with corrective and remedial students. Reading levels —grades 3 through 9.

Witty, Paul. *How to Become a Better Reader.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965.

A classic book for teaching basic reading skills at the secondary level. Many practice selections included. Reading level—grade 9; interest level—through high school.

Witty, Paul. *How to Improve Your Reading.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965.

Interesting content to develop basic reading skills. Especially helpful for developing skills of reading in the social studies. Reading level—grade 7; interest level—spanning the junior and senior high school.

Wood, Evelyn N., and Barrows, Marjorie W. *Reading Skills.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1958.

Designed for remedial readers in the junior and senior high schools. Stresses the development of vocabulary and comprehension skills. Reading level—grades 5 through 10.

Hargrave, Rowena, and Armstrong, Leila. *Building Reading Skills Series.* Wichita, Kansas: McCormick-Mathers Publishing Company, Inc., 1965.

Designed as a developmental program, this auditory-visual word analysis series is especially adaptable for use in corrective and remedial programs at the secondary level. Mature in content and format. Reading level ranges from first to sixth grade.

II. Reading Kits

Bracken, Dorothy K., *et al. Tactics in Reading Kits.* Atlanta, Georgia: Scott, Foresman and Company, Kit I, 1961; Kit II, 1963; Kit III, 1967.

Kits I and II correlated with Galaxy Program but may be used separately. In sets of 35 cards each, the box contains pre and post tests and 102 exercises in word context, word sound, word structure, dictionary skills, sequence, imagery, inferences, sentence meaning, paragraph reading and word families. Levels 7 through 12. Teacher's Guide contains answers.

Deighton, Lee C.; Sanford, Adrian B.; *et al. The Macmillan Reading Spectrum.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1964.

Boxed practice materials containing *The Spectrum of Books* for recreational reading and *The Spectrum of Skills* for developmental reading. Skills materials include vocabulary, word analysis, and comprehension development activities. Self-directing, self-pacing, and self-correcting. Reading level ranges from grades 4 to 6. Useful in the junior and senior high school with handicapped readers.

Developmental Reading Laboratory. New York: The Reading Laboratory, Inc.

A kit of 175 exercises divided into eight levels of reading difficulty, ranging from the sixth through the thirteenth level. Selections are taken from texts in literature, world and American history, natural and social sciences, art, and music. Basic skills are included in 23 timed exercises. Supplementary exercises develop skills in the English language arts.

Dimensions in Reading, Manpower and Natural Resources. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc.

Designed for developmental reading for students who will soon enter the world of work. Over 300 selections are included and are taken from popular books and magazines. Eight reading levels (4.0 to 11.9) are represented in the materials, which deal primarily with masculine occupations.

Loretan, Joseph O., *et al. Building Reading Power.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1964.

Kit contains programmed exercises of basic skills designed for junior high school use. Reading level—grade 5.

Naslund, Robert A. *Graph and Picture Study Skills Kit.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1961.

Exercises in interpretation of charts, graphs, cartoons, diagrams, and photographs for developing visual perception. Levels 4 through 12. Self-checking.

Naslund, Robert A. *Map and Globe Skills Kit.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1963.

Exercises in interpretation of geographic locations. Levels 4 through 8 or remedial high school. Teaches relationships, distance, and map reading.

Naslund, Robert A. *Organizing and Reporting Skills Kit.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1962.

Exercises in outlining, assimilating, and summarizing. Levels 4 through 6 and high school remedial.

Parker, Don, *et al. SRA Reading Laboratories.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc.

Latest editions levels I A, B, and C; II A, B, and C; III A and B; and IV A range from grades 1 through 14. Each laboratory contains multilevel power, rate and listening exercises. Self-checking.

Parker, Don. *Vocabulab III.* Chicago: Science Research Assoicates, Inc., 1967.

Multi-level format, self-pacing, self-checking vocabulary program. Levels 7 through 12.

Pilot Libraries. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1964.

Library IIC, levels 6 and 7; Library IIIB, levels 8 and 9. Each library contains excerpts from books of high literary value appropriate in interest and vocabulary for junior high students.

Reading Attainment System. New York: Grolier Educational Corporation.

One hundred and twenty different reading selections, written at third and fourth reading levels with high interest. For the potential dropout. Self-checking.

Reading for Understanding Kit. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1963.

General and junior editions available for levels 3 through 12. Each kit contains 400 practice cards in comprehension. In 100 graduated levels. Self-checking.

Robinson, H. Alan, *et al. Study Skills Library.* Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, 1961.

Multi-level sequential exercises in science, social studies and reference skills. Organization, interpretation, evaluation, and location skills are included. Reading levels 3 through 9.

Scholastic Literature Units. New York: Scholastic Book Services.

Approximately one hundred high interest paperbound books in each of the twelve thematic units. Wide range of reading levels for individual and group reading of literature for reports and discussion. Levels 6 through 11.

The Literature Sampler. New York: Xerox, Junior Edition, 1964; Secondary Edition, 1962.

Previews of 144 prominent books organized in 10 interest areas. Develops interest in recreational reading. Paperback, full-length books accompany the previews. Junior Edition, 4 through 9; Secondary Edition, levels 5 through 12.

Webster's Classroom Clinic. St. Louis, Missouri: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963.

Complete remedial kit contains professional text, word wheels, skills cards, set of paperback recreational readers, *Conquests in Reading, Magic World of Dr. Spello,* and several word games.

III. Series of Books for Recreational Reading

All About Books. New York: Random House, Inc.

Twenty books presenting scientific materials. Written in simple vocabulary and sentence structure. Reading level—grades 3 to 4; interest level—grades 5 to 12.

American Adventure Series by Emmett A. Betts, ed. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1960.

Stories of adventure and biography. Divided into logical chapters with end questions for review. Illustrated. Reading level—grades 2 to 6; interest level—grades 5 to 9.

American Heritage Junior Library Series. Aladdin Books. New York: American Book Company.

American historical novels written in an easy style. Many titles. Reading levels—grades 5 to 6; interest levels through adulthood.

Barnes Sport Library. New York: A. S. Barnes Company.

A series of books prepared to teach the best way to play a number of games and to participate in such sports as hockey, bowling, tennis, and many others. Reading level—grades 6 and up; interest level—grades 8 to 12.

Basic Science Education Series. Evanston, Illinois: Harper and Row, Publishers.

Titles on all reading levels, covering more than seventy-five topics in the physical and biological sciences.

Careers in Depth Series. New York: Richard Rosen Press.

Series of books dealing with many careers. Attractive format, with material designed to help young people assess their own interests and abilities as well as suggest necessary training and education. Interest level—ninth grade up; reading level—grades 9 and 10.

The Challenge Readers by L. H. Mountain and Walter M. Mason. Wichita, Kansas: McCormick-Mathers, 1965.

Stories which help students make personal adjustments in getting along with other people and in understanding themselves. Interest level—grade 9 and up.

Checkered-Flag Series. Atlanta: Field Educational Publications, Inc.

Series of four books about cars, including hot rods, antique motor cars, conventional cars, and race cars. High in interest with reading level ranging from 2.4 to 2.6 grade levels. Contains excellent skill building exercises with provocative questions for both oral and written expression.

Childhood of Famous Americans Series. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company.

Biographies of the childhood and youth of famous Americans. Over 150 titles. Reading level—grades 4 to 5; interest level—grades 5 to 12.

Cowboy Sam Series by Edna Walker Chandler. Chicago: Benefic Press.

Stories full of humor and action, with appeal for more mature young people. Reading level—grades 1 to 3; interest level—second grade and up.

Dan Frontier Series. Chicago: Benefic Press.

Series of 9 books written at a reading level from grades 1 to 3 and of interest from grades 1 to 12. Adult action in stories about a young frontiersman.

Deep Sea Adventure Series. Chicago: Benefic Press.

Easy-to-read series designed to provide interesting stories. Excellent material for the reluctant reader. Covers rate of comprehension and comprehension skills. Approximate reading level from grades 1 to 5.

Enchantment of America. Chicago: Children's Press.

Well-illustrated books giving the history of the various regions of the United States. Reading level—grades 6 to 8; interest level—grade 6 up.

Everygirls Library. New York: Lantern Press.

Short story collections, featuring such high-interest topics as romance, careers, mystery, and horses. Reading level—grades 6 to 8; interest level—grades 6 to 10.

Everyreader Library by William Kottmeyer. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company.

Simplified classics for those reading at fourth and fifth grade levels. Interest to high school level. Includes *Sherlock Holmes* and *The Gold Bug*.

First Book Series. New York: Franklin Watts, Inc.

Simple introductory books in interest areas of science and animals, occupations, and sports. Reading level of the books ranges from third to sixth grade. Interest level through high school.

Frontier West. New York: Macmillan Company.

Exciting accounts of various facets of life in the 1860's. Reading level—grades 5 and 6; interest level—grade 5 and up.

Garrard Sports Library edited by Colonel Red Reeder. Champaign: Garrard Publishing Company.

Stories based on outstanding persons in the sports world. Reading level—grade 4; interest level—grade 4 and up.

Interesting Reading Series by Morton Botel, ed. Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1961.

Series of several titles written at grade levels 1 to 4 but of interest to junior and senior high school students. Contains carefully graded vocabulary for the reluctant reader. Highly motivational and useful for the development of the rate of comprehension.

Jim Forest Series by John and Nancy Rambeau and Gullett. Atlanta: Field Educational Publications, Inc.

Six books from pre-primer to third grade reading level. A story of a boy living with a forest ranger, engaging in mountain climbing, fire fighting, and bandit chasing.

John J. Floherty Series. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott.

Series on occupations, including F.B.I., forest ranger, and many more. Reading level—grade 9; interest level—grades 9 to 12.

Julian Messner Shelf of Biographies. New York: Messner.

Interestingly written, well-illustrated biographies related to the social studies curriculum in junior and senior high school. Reading level—grade 6 and up; interest level—grades 7 to 12.

Junior Library Series. New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc.

Series includes fiction, natural science, adventure, travel, and biography. Reading level—grades 2 to 5; interest level—grades 4 to 12.

Landmark Books. New York: Random House.

Series of 50 titles on United States history. Such topics as Exploration, Settlement, the Colonial Period, and National Development are included. Reading level—grades 5 to 8; interest level—grades 8 to 12.

Made in ——— Series. New York: Knopf and Co.

Presentations of the arts and crafts of different countries. Striking illustrations increase their appeal. Reading level—grades 4 to 6.

Modern Adventure Series. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.

Mysteries that are in a mature-looking format. Exciting plots, about fifth grade difficulty. Good through high school level of interest.

Morgan Bay Mystery Series by John Rambeau and Nancy Rambeau. Atlanta: Field Educational Publications, Inc.

Beautifully illustrated books of mysteries touched with humor and suspense. Written at a second to third grade reading level with an interest level ranging from fourth to ninth grade. Teachers' guides available with the series.

North Star Books. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company.

Easy-reading books presenting American history attractively. Some topics are the *Santa Fe Trail*, *The Gold Rush*, and *Thomas Edison*.

Pacemaker Books. Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers.

Paperback booklets dealing with teen-age characters and matters of interest; written on first to fourth grade reading levels.

People of Destiny. Chicago: Children's Press.

Profusely illustrated biographies geared to the social studies program. These books are interestingly written and brief enough not to overwhelm the reluctant reader.

People to People. New York: Random House.

A social studies-oriented program of 35 books. Each book offers detailed information about a foreign country. Wide range of reading levels included and of interest through the ninth grade level.

Piper Books. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company.

Twenty-five titles about famous men from Ponce de Leon to Robert Louis Stevenson. Reading level—grades 3 to 4. Interest level throughout high school. Available in paperback editions.

Real People Series. Evanston, Illinois: Harper and Row, Publishers.

Brief, attractive biographies of famous people such as Daniel Boone, John Paul Jones, Jane Addams, and Alfred the Great. Reading level—grades 3 to 4.

Reading Pacemakers. New York: Random House.

Fifty books in five interest centers with Skilpacers Cards to encourage wide and varied reading. Content is of interest in the *Reading Pacemakers Green* from the third grade to the tenth grade. *Reading Pacemakers Blue* also appeal to seventh and eighth grade students.

Rivers of the World. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company.

Twelve books about rivers such as the Amazon, Colorado, Mississippi, St. Lawrence, Nile, Thames, and others. Reading level—grades 4 to 7. Interest level up to grades 8 and 9.

Scholastic Reluctant Reader Libraries. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Scholastic Book Services.

Selected paperbacks for students with limited skills but maturing interests. Titles are varied for many tastes, including sports, humor, mysteries, and romance. Reading levels range from third to seventh grades.

Sailor Jack Series. Chicago: Benefic Press.

Written at reading levels grades 1 to 3 but of interest to slow readers in high school. Action stories of the sea, told humorously.

Signal Books. New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc.

Short novels written at a fourth grade level but of high interest for teenagers. Includes mystery, adventure, sports and others.

Signature Books. New York: Grosset and Dunlap.

Lively biographies of men and women who have played a part in molding history. Reading level—grades 5 to 7; interest level—grades 6 to 8.

Simplified Classics. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company.

Written at fourth to fifth grade levels and appealing to students in grades 4 to 12. Differing and unusual formats.

Sport Readers. New York: Macmillan Company.

Series is about swimming, the playground, and outdoors. Second and third grade difficulty but of interest to slow readers in the junior high school.

Teen-Age Stories edited by A. L. Furman. New York: Lantern Press.

Short story collections designed for easy reading and high interest. Topics include ghosts, spies, and outer space. Reading level—grades 4-8; interest level—grade 4 and up.

Terrific Triple Titles Series. New York: Watts.

Each book is a collection of short stories based on a general theme such as sports, dogs, heroes, and ghosts. Reading level—grades 5 to 6; interest level—grades 5 to 8.

The Reading-Motivated Series by Heffernan, *et al.* Atlanta: Field Educational Publications, Inc.

Teen-age oriented books which begin with an attention-gripping story. Each book contains a correlated study plan. Reading level—grade 4.5 to 5.3; interest level to tenth grade.

True Story Biographies. Chicago: Children's Press.

Stories of the lives of eight famous men. Fifth grade difficulty level, but interesting to high school students.

We Were There Series. New York: Grosset and Dunlap.

Adventure stories combined with historical facts. Reading level—grades 4 to 5; interest level—grades 5 to 12.

The Wildlife Adventure Series by Leonard and Briscoe. Atlanta: Field Educational Publications, Inc.

Descriptive series on animals on reading levels from 2.6 to 4.4 grade level. Interest range through eighth grade.

Winston Adventure Series. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc.

Fiction based on facts in American history, designed for junior high. Reading level—grades 7 to 8. Interesting through high school.

Winston Adventure Books. Philadelphia: Winston.

High-interest stories based partially on facts or persons in American history. Reading level—grades 6 to 7; interest level—grade 6 and up.

Winston Science Fiction Novels. Philadelphia: Winston.

Exciting adventures in the realm of science fiction. Reading level—grades 6 to 7; interest level—grade 6 and up.

World Explorer Books. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company.

Written at third to sixth grade level and of interest through high school.

World Landmark Books. New York: Random House.

Historical biography that describes the lives of great men and events. Thirty-five books. Reading level—grades 5 to 6; interest level—grades 6 to 12.

World Readers Bookshelf. New York: Lantern Press, Inc.

Collections of short stories in areas of interest, such as sports and mystery. Reading level—grades 5 to 6. Interest level through high school.

Young Heroes Library. New York: Lantern Press.

Novels about mysteries, Indians, sports and other topics of high interest to young people. Reading level—grades 6-8; interest level—grades 7-10.

Young Sports Stories by Matt Christopher. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

Sports stories, well-illustrated, with high interest value for boys. Various sports are covered by the different titles in the series. Reading level—grades 4 to 6; interest level—grade 5 and up.

IV. Films, Filmstrips, Tapes, and Recordings

Advanced Reading Skills. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

This is a series of filmstrips for use by readers with a wide range of ability and achievement. The purpose of the series is to enable students to read better and faster.

Adventures in Reading. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

Excellent literature selections presented in nine filmstrips as an aid to reading and selecting good books.

Anatomy of Language. New York, New York: Folkways Records, Inc.

This series of seven records covers vocabulary, sentence completion, word relationships, composition, and reading comprehension.

Basic Phonics. Los Angeles, California: E. R. A. Filmstrips.

A set of four series with six filmstrips per series and three LP records. This material is good for remediation of severely retarded readers.

Better Reading. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc.

This film demonstrates methods of improving high school students' speed, comprehension, and vocabulary.

Better Study Habits Series. New York: McGraw-Hill Films.

Important study and learning skills presented in a set of six filmstrips.

Comprehension Power Paragraphs and Sentences. Grades 3-6, Stanford E. Taylor, *et al.* Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories.

Skills of recall, association, interpretation, and evaluation are presented on these filmstrips to be used with the EDL Controlled Reader.

Controlled Reader Films. Grades 1-12, Stanford E. Taylor *et al.* Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc.

These films, designed for use with the EDL Controlled Reader, aim to help the student improve reading skills, such as rate, vocabulary, and comprehension. They should be used with the accompanying workbooks.

Cues to Reading. San Francisco, California: C-B Educational Films.

Words, phrases, sentences and paragraphs are taught at many levels in this material.

Cut Your Reading Time. New York, New York: The Reading Laboratory.

This film is a fifteen-minute introduction to developmental reading.

Developing Effective Reading-Study Skills. Hollywood, California: Bailey Films, Inc.

An introduction to good study skills and habits. This material may be used as an introduction to a reading course.

Developing Reading Maturity Series. Chicago, Illinois: Coronet Films.

These five films help readers move from literal meanings and understanding to the development of critical reading power. This series is designed for senior high school use.

Discovering Spelling Patterns Series. New York, New York: McGraw-Hill Films, Inc.

This material can be used effectively in a remedial class to improve spelling skills. The material is packaged in six sets.

Fundamentals of Language Arts. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

This filmstrip series is designed to give students a knowledge of literature, to encourage literary appreciation, to develop an interest in the world of books, and to improve reading for pleasure.

Fundamentals of Reading. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

This specialized filmstrip series is useful in remedial reading classes for skills practice activities and review in the mechanics of phonetics and comprehension.

Fundamentals of Thinking. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

A series of nine color filmstrips with teaching manual, containing learning concepts.

Fundamentals of Vocabulary Building. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

Nine filmstrips designed to help increase sight and reading vocabulary at the junior high school level. This set includes a study in configuration . . . a valuable exercise in visualization, reasoning, and judgment.

Graded Word Speed-I-O-Strips Series. Chicago, Illinois: Society for Visual Education.

Prepared for use with a tachistoscope, this filmstrip series includes two sets of twenty-five phrases to increase eye span, develop recognition of words in context, increase speed and comprehension in reading, increase vocabulary, and improve spelling.

Growing Through Reading. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

An attractive set of filmstrips aimed to develop good attitudes and habits in reading activities.

How Do You Read? Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University.

This film presents exercises for increasing comprehension and rate.

How to Read. Chicago, Illinois: Society for Visual Education.

This film presents communication ideas for senior high and college students.

How to Read a Book. Chicago, Illinois: Coronet Films.

This material at a secondary level includes information on book selection, parts of a book, rate adjustment, and analysis and evaluation.

Instant Words. Sunland, California: Learning Through Seeing.

Two sets of filmstrips of the most frequently used words in reading and writing. This material may be used with or without tachistoscopic devices.

Iowa Reading Films, College Series. Iowa City: The State University of Iowa.

This college series, showing fifteen short selections presented at a controlled rate of speed, is best used with mature students.

The Iowa Reading Films, High School Series, Revised. Iowa City: The State University of Iowa.

This series consists of fifteen short films presented at rates of speed ranging from 240 wpm to 500 wpm. A comprehension check is contained in the manual.

Learning to Study. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopedia Britannica Films.

This secondary level film is an introduction to good study habits.

Listen and Read, Stanford E. Taylor. Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc.

Listen and Read consists of a kit of tapes, discs, workbooks, and a teacher's guide. A tape recorder, and in some instances, headsets are needed. The material is graded in levels from fourth grade to college and adult reading levels. The series emphasizes the need for good listening and ways to develop the ability to listen with greater attention, discrimination, organization, and retention.

Library Series. New York: McGraw-Hill Text Films.

Use of the dictionary, encyclopedia, Dewey Decimal system, and card catalogue are covered in this secondary level material.

Library Tool Series. New York, New York: McGraw-Hill Text Films.

Special references such as biographical source books, the Reader's Guide, gazetteers, atlases, almanacs, and yearbooks are discussed in this material.

Listening and Reading Skills. Chicago, Illinois: Society for Visual Education.

Ways to remember what is read and heard and how to take notes are presented in this film.

New Graded Word Phrases. Chicago, Illinois: Society for Visual Education, Inc.

A series of filmstrips to be used with the Speed-I-O-Scope to improve recognition of words and phrases. Primer through senior high school reading level.

New Spelling Goals . . . A Program in Auditory Training. New York, New York: Webster Publishing Company.

This is a set of seven filmstrips useful in remediation at the secondary level.

Number Recognition. Sunland, California: Learning Through Seeing.

This is a set of twelve filmstrips for tachistoscopic training to improve attention, concentration, retention, visual span, and quickness and accuracy of perception.

Pay Dirt in Print. New York: Associated Business Publication, Inc.

This material shows how development of better readers contributes to the value of an employee and the success of a company.

Phonetic Analysis—Consonants. San Francisco, California: Pacific Products.

These four filmstrips are geared for remediation at the high school level.

Phonetic Analysis—Vowels. San Francisco, California: Pacific Products.

These filmstrips are designed for intermediate and elementary levels, but may be used for remediation at the secondary level.

Purdue Reading Films, Junior High School Series. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University.

A series of films paced at reading rates from 398 to 869 wpm. Emphasis is on improved rate of comprehension. Recommended for use with mature readers.

Reading Comprehension. New York, New York: Folkways Records.

Techniques of reading comprehension are first discussed, followed by concrete examples.

Reading Development. Sunland, California: Learning Through Seeing.

Geared to senior high school, college and adult levels. These filmstrips present three reading exercises with instructions, lesson materials, quizzes, and reviews.

Reading Effectively. Iowa City: The State University of Iowa.

This film is an introduction to reading improvement and is an orientation to the Iowa Reading Skills.

Reading Growth Series. Chicago, Illinois: Coronet Films.

A series of five films, these films are designed for the intermediate level, but may be used in secondary remedial reading classes.

Reading Improvement, College and Adult. Sunland, California: Learning Through Seeing.

This film suggests methods of improving reading for mature students.

Reading Improvement Series. Chicago, Illinois: Coronet Films.

This series of film lessons stresses major reading skills for the junior high school level. Includes comprehension skills, vocabulary skills, word recognition skills, and effective reading rates. One film defines the good reader. Each is an eleven-minute film.

Reading Series. Chicago, Illinois: Society for Visual Education, Inc.

These sixteen filmstrips give tachistoscopic training with the use of words and phrases for grades 1-6. This material may be used most effectively in a remedial class.

Related Reading Activities. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

This film stresses the importance of vocabulary, spelling, and the listening skills.

School Skills for Today and Tomorrow. Chicago, Illinois: Society for Visual Education.

For junior and senior high school, this material presents study and reference material.

Seeing Skills. Sunland, California: Learning Through Seeing.

This material consists of several filmstrips emphasizing ways to improve attention, concentration, accuracy, and retention. Presents skills which transfer to reading and spelling.

The School Library Series. New York: McGraw-Hill Films.

Designed to acquaint the student with the organization and arrangement of the library. This series endeavors to teach the student to use the library independently.

Speed Reading Made Easy. Pleasantville, New York: Educational Audio-Visual, Inc.

This is an introduction to speed reading techniques.

Structural Analysis. San Francisco, California. Pacific Products.

This set of eleven filmstrips uses familiar words to illustrate the principles of structural analysis. Good for remediation at the junior and senior high school levels.

Studying for Success. Jamaica, New York: Eye Gate House, Inc.

A set of eleven filmstrips with five records and a teaching manual designed to encourage students to analyze their own study habits and to improve study skills.

Using the Library. Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopedia Britannica Films.

This series, suitable for junior high school and remedial senior high school students, presents information on the card catalogue, book classification, the dictionary, encyclopedia, and special reference books.

Vocabulary Improvement Series. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.

Five records and a study guide which present one hundred selected words from mass media and general book material. The focus is on familiar words which are not really understood.

What's the Word? Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company.

A series of twelve filmstrips useful for teaching structural analysis skills in remedial classes. Excellent for both diagnostic and instructional activities. Reading level ranges from fourth to sixth grade.

Word Study Series. New York: McGraw-Hill Films.

A set of six filmstrips which explains and illustrates interesting and useful information about word building, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, heteronyms, changes in word meaning, unusual origins of words, and derivations of words.

Words and Their Parts Series. Boston, Massachusetts: Ginn and Company.

This series of seven filmstrips is designed to help develop an understanding in word attack, syllabication, prefixes and suffixes, meaning of accent marks, compound words, and plurals.

Your Dictionary and How To Use It. Chicago, Illinois: Society for Visual Education.

A set of six filmstrips to be used in establishing good dictionary habits and making them meaningful.

V. Magazines

American Girl. 830 Third Avenue, New York, New York: Girl Scouts of America.

Short stories and articles on cooking, sewing, sports, good grooming, arts and crafts. For ages 10 through 17.

Boy's Life. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Boy Scouts of America.

Clean fiction, handicrafts, hobbies, hiking, and camping. Good twelve-page comic section. For teen-age and younger boys.

Co-Ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

Articles of social interest for ages 7 through 12. Home Economics also included.

Current Events. 55 High Street, Middletown, Connecticut: American Education Publications.

Remedial vocabulary for junior and senior high levels.

Every Week. 55 High Street, Middletown, Connecticut: American Education Publications.

Current events. Vocabulary for levels 8 to 10.

Glamour. 420 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York: Conde Nast.

For the young woman; contains information on clothes, beauty and hair styles, travel notes, entertaining, and home decorating ideas.

Hot Rod. 5959 Hollywood Boulevard, Los Angeles, California: Trend Books, Inc.

For hot rod car enthusiasts and amateur mechanics. Appeals to modern teen-age point of view.

Junior Review. 1733 K Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20006: Civic Education Service.

Based on geography, gives students an introduction to national and world problems. For junior high school level.

Junior Scholastic. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

Current events for 6 through 8 grade level.

Mechanix Illustrated. Fawcett Place, Greenwich, Connecticut: Fawcett Publications, Inc.

Of interest to the technically inclined. Includes workshop projects. Grades 7 through 12.

Outdoor Life. 355 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York, 10017: Popular Science Publishing Company.

Of interest to students who love out-of-door sports, wildlife, and the like. Junior and senior high level.

Popular Mechanics. 575 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10022: Popular Mechanics Company.

Of high interest to technically inclined. Grade levels 7 through 12.

Popular Science. 575 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10022: Popular Mechanics Company.

Articles of interest in the field of science.

Read. 55 High Street, Middletown, Connecticut: American Education Publications.

High interest articles on a variety of subjects. Remedial junior and senior high.

Scope. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Scholastic Magazines, Inc.

Written for the disadvantaged. Reading level—grades 4 to 6. Interest level—grades 9 through 12.

Seventeen. 320 Park Avenue, New York, New York 10022: Triangle Publications.

Young fashion, fiction, beauty, movies, music, ideas and people for teens.

VI. Games for Teaching Skills

Dolch, Edward W. *Consonant Lotto.* Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press.

Teaches fundamental steps in phonics.

Dolch, Edward W. *Group Word Teaching Game.* Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press.

Played like Bingo.

Dolch, Edward W. *Know Your States.* Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press.

Practice activities for developing an understanding of geography, spelling, sounding, and pronunciation.

Dolch, Edward W. *Take.* Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press.

Matching sounds of beginning, middle, and endings of words.

Dolch, Edward W. *The Syllable Game.* Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press.

Makes students aware of word parts and a need for word attack.

Dolch, Edward W. *Vowel Lotto.* Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press.

Practice in thinking and matching sounds.

Educational *"Password."* Springfield, Massachusetts: Milton Bradley Company.

For practicing sight and picture words.

Phonetic Quizmo. Springfield, Massachusetts: Milton Bradley Company.

Played like Bingo.

Phonetic Word Builder. Springfield, Massachusetts: Milton Bradley Company.

Consists of consonants, vowels, blends, and endings.

Phonetic Word Drill Cards. Buffalo, New York: Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc.

Sets A, B, and C. Each set has 10 basic flip chart cards for practice with word families.

Phonic Rummy. Buffalo, New York: Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc.

Four sets: A through D (for levels 1 through 5). Practice in matching vowel sounds.

Sentence Builder. Springfield, Massachusetts: Milton Bradley Company.

Practice in developing sentence sense.

Uno. Buffalo, New York: Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc.

Ninety cards for auditory, visual, and kinesthetic practice with phonetic elements. Levels 1 through 4.

Word and Phrase and Sentence Builder. Buffalo, New York: Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc.

Practice in forming sentences.

Word Blends. Buffalo, New York: Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc.

Flip cards which present 144 words for creating interest in learning blends.

Word Builders. Buffalo, New York: Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc.

Letter cards for creating new words. To increase speed of spelling and reading basic sight vocabulary.

Word Prefixes. Buffalo, New York: Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc.

Flip cards which present 23 different prefixes, making 216 words for practicing prefix substitution.

Word Suffixes. Buffalo, New York: Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc.

Flip cards which present 24 word endings, making 144 words for practicing suffix substitution.

VII. Mechanical Devices[1]

Tachistoscopes

All-Purpose Tachistoscope Attachment. Lafayette, Indiana: Lafayette Instrument Company.

Use with any make of projector. Speeds range from 1/100 second to full second for exposing materials on a screen.

AVR Eye-Span Trainer, Model 10. Chicago, Illinois: Audio-Visual Research Company.

Hand operated tachistoscope for use with prepared slides printed on heavy index card stock. Provides training in numbers, words, and phrases. Inexpensive item.

AVR Flash-Tachment. Chicago, Illinois: Audio-Visual Research Company.

Converts any 2 x 2" slide or filmstrip projector into classroom tach in a few minutes. Speeds range from 1/25 to 1/100 second.

Electro-Tach. Lafayette, Indiana: Lafayette Instrument Company.

For individual use or in small learning teams. Uses coded 5 x 5½" cards. Electronic flash unit with speeds from 1/100 to 1 second.

EDL Flash—X Tachistoscope. Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc.

Round, metal, hand-operated tachistoscope for exposing numbers, letters, and words at 1/25 second. Can be used individually or with small groups of 3 to 5 students. Inexpensive item.

Available cards for use with the instrument range in difficulty levels from grades 1 to 13.

EDL Tach—X Projector. Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, 1950 or 1951.

This special filmstrip projector must be used with special EDL filmstrips which range in difficulty from K through 14 reading grade levels. Highly motivational machine.

Keystone Standard Tachistoscope. Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View Company, 1963.

This device contains a shutter which can be adjusted to various speeds for flashing numbers, words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs to increase "eyespan" and to reduce fixations. Must be used with slides prepared for the device. Should be used with an individual or small groups, *not* with an entire class.

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[1] The use of mechanical devices, such as tachistoscopes and pacers, should be limited. When used, these devices should be used with individuals and small team groups by the most efficient teachers. The use of a mechanical device set at a particular rate for an entire class group is not recommended.

Keystone Tachette. Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View Company.

This is a portable device to give individual practice for increasing perceptual efficiency.

Percepta-Matic Tachistoscope. Portland, Oregon: Percepta-Matic.

For individual or group tachistoscopic training at speeds from 1/100 to 1/10 second.

Phrase-Flasher. New York: The Reading Laboratory, Inc.

For individual training using card sets supplied with the device. Inexpensive item.

Speed-I-O-Scope (Graflex). Chicago, Illinois: Society for Visual Education, Inc.

This is a simple attachment for any standard projector and for use with Tachistoscopic Training Filmstrips or Speed-I-O-Slides for improvement in word recognition, phrase recognition, and rate. Should be used with an individual or small group, *not* an entire class.

Tachist-O-Flasher. Chicago, Illinois: Science Research Associates, Inc.

A manually operated tachistoscope which fits any filmstrip projector. Provides exposures at rates from 1/20 to 1/40 second. Kits of materials on various levels are available for use with this device.

Tachistoscope. Lafayette, Indiana: Lafayette Instrument Company.

A combination slide and strip film projector. Shutter speeds adjustable from 1/100 to 1 full second.

Accelerating Devices

AVR Reading Rateometer. Chicago, Illinois: Audio-Visual Research Company.

A speed reading device which rushes a cross-bar down the pages. The rate of downward movement of the cross-bar can be controlled. A chart is placed on the machine to help compute words per minute.

Craig Reader. Los Angeles, California: Craig Research, Inc.

An instrument designed for individual use or small team learning, the *Craig Reader* utilizes 35 mm. single-frame filmstrips aimed to improve rate and comprehension. Basically, this device is a reading pacer, especially helpful in developing good eye habits in reading. Speeds can be varied from 100 wpm to over 2,000 wpm.

EDL Controlled Reader. Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc., 1960.

A controlled device designed especially to be used with EDL filmstrips ranging in reading levels from K to 14. Exposes a continuous story through a moving slot at speeds from 60 wpm to 1,000 wpm. Students cannot look back.

The series of accompanying filmstrips are designed to improve vocabulary, fixations, study skills, comprehension, and rate. Should be used with small groups who are reading at a given level within the classroom. Should *not* be used with an entire class group.

Accompanying guides are available to use for pre-reading and follow-up activities.

EDL Controlled Reader Junior. Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc.

Same as controlled reader, except smaller. Uses same film. For individual or very small group use.

EDL Skimmer. Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, Inc., 1950 or 1951.

A special device designed for use with the book, *Skimming and Scanning*. A small light beam moves down the center of the page in exactly thirty seconds. Motivates reader to skim for important ideas. For individual training only.

Keystone Reading Pacer. Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View Company.

For individual training, this device consists of a framed holder for a book or other reading material over which a thin metal rod descends as a pacer. Dial controls speed of rod.

PDL Perceptascope. St. Louis, Missouri: Perceptual Development Laboratories.

A multi-function machine which can act as a controller, pacer, accelerator, motion picture projector, filmstrip projector, and tachistoscope. Can project material at 41 different speeds from 120 to 4,320 wpm.

Shadowscope Reading Pacer. Chicago, Illinois: Psychotechnics, Inc.

An individual pacer, this device uses the moving beam of light technique. The beam guides the reader down the page at rates from 100 to 3,000 wpm. Any reading material can be used with this device.

SRA Reading Accelerator, Model III. Chicago, Illinois: Science Research Associates, Inc.

The SRA Reading Accelerator is a device to assist individual readers to improve reading rate. A moving shutter travels at adjusted speeds from 50 to 2,600 wpm. Entirely mechanical and for use with any materials.

Tachomatic 500 Projector. Chicago, Illinois: Psychotechnics, Inc.

A variable speed 35 mm. filmstrip projector which presents Tachomatic Films at speeds from 100 to 2,000 wpm. Should be used with small groups reading at a particular level within a class, *not* with an entire class group.

Other Devices

The Language Master. Chicago: Bell and Howell Company, 1965.

A machine device similar to a tape recorder, utilizing commercially prepared or teacher-made cards only. These cards have magnetic tape at the bottom which makes it possible for the student to hear a word that is printed or illustrated at the top of the card. Can be used with an individual student or a group using earphones and a junction box. The material is programmed for a linguistics approach to the teaching of reading and oral language. Excellent device for developing improved oral language skills.

Audio Flashcard System. North Haven, Connecticut: Electronic Futures, Inc., 1968.

A machine device which combines audio-visual and kinesthetic exercises, utilizing either commercially prepared or teacher-made cards for reading and language skills development and improvement. Students can see objects, words, sentences, or situations depicted on lesson cards, read the descriptions, and simultaneously hear the correct sounds. Students can record and compare their own responses with the programmed material. Recommended for individual use.

APPENDIX H

Book Selection Aids

American Library Association. *A Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades.* 7th ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1960.

A selective, annotated list of books to guide the librarian purchasing an initial book collection, with the aim of having a balanced collection as well.

American Library Association. *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools.* 7th ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1963.

Annotated list designed to assist the librarian in making first purchases for a new library.

American Library Association. *A Basic Collection for Junior High Schools.* 3rd ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1960.

Annotated list of books basic in subject matter and content to the establishment of a small junior high library.

American Library Association. *Books for Children, 1960-1965.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1966.

American Library Association. *Books for Children, 1965-1966.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1966.

American Library Association. *Books for Children, 1966-1967.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1967.

American Library Association. *Books for Children, 1967-1968.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1968.

Books recommended in the A. L. A. Booklist, covering a wide range of subjects as well as reading levels. Descriptive, critical annotations given for each book.

American Library Association, Young Adult Service Division. *Doors to More Mature Reading.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1964.

An annotated list of about 150 adult books which are useful with young people. Long descriptions are given, doing much to give the theme of the selection and being helpful in giving book talks.

Baker, Augusta. *Books About Negro Life for Children.* New York: New York Public Library, 1963.

Gives short annotations on books suitable for both elementary and secondary school students, arranged by subject and age level.

Crosby, Muriel, ed. *Reading Ladders for Human Relations.* 4th ed. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963.

An annotated bibliography of books chosen because they would aid young people to grow in understanding themselves, the problems of achieving maturity, and relationships with people of other lands. Each sublisting is arranged in order of increasing difficulty of reading.

Deason, Hilary J. *The A.A.A.S. Science Book List for Young Adults.* Washington, D. C.: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1964.

Annotated list of books in the biological, physical, behavioral, medical, engineering, agricultural, and mathematical sciences. The list was designed both as a guide to reading in these fields and as an acquisition guide.

Dunn, Anita, *et al. Fare for the Reluctant Reader.* Rev. ed. Albany, New York: Capital Area School Development Association, Albany State Teachers College, 1952.

Annotated list of books to stimulate the reluctant to read.

Emery, Raymond C., and Houshower, Margaret B., compilers. *High Interest—Easy Reading for Junior and Senior High School Reluctant Readers.* Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

This bibliography is arranged by interest categories with reading level, interest level, and brief description given.

Kress, Roy A. *A Place to Start.* Syracuse, New York: Reading Center, Syracuse University, 1963.

A list of books suitable for retarded readers ranging from the upper elementary to high school grades. Titles are roughly graded and grouped in several subject and general areas.

Library Journal. *A Catalog of 3300 Best Books for Children.* New York: R. R. Bowker Company, Annual.

An annually published listing of 4,000 books selected as outstanding titles for children's libraries. New titles are chosen from those receiving good reviews in the SCHOOL LIBRARY JOURNAL, with general excellence, timeliness, and sustained popularity helping to determine those titles retained from year to year.

National Association of Independent Schools, Library Committee. *3000 Books for Secondary School Libraries.* 2nd ed. Boston, Massachusetts: National Association of Independent Schools, 1965.

Annotated list of books selected by the association as being basic to a secondary school library.

National Council of Teachers of English. *Adventuring with Books; A Reading List for Elementary Grades.* Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, Annual.

Reading list, with brief annotations, of books for elementary school students and secondary students who are poor readers. Topical sublistings help locate particular types of stories. Subdivisions are made according to reading difficulty also.

National Council of Teachers of English. *Books for You; A Reading List for Senior High School Students.* Rev. ed. New York: Washington Square Press, 1969.

Reading lists, by interest categories, selected and annotated by the Committee on The Senior High School Book List. Fiction and non-fiction are included, with the development of a lifetime habit of reading for pleasure the chief aim.

National Council of Teachers of English, Committee on College Reading. *Good Reading.* New York: Mentor Books, 1964.

Brief annotations of more than 1000 books, arranged according to historical period and type of writing. Excellent guide for college-bound students.

National Council of Teachers of English. *Your Reading, A Reading List for Junior High School Students.* Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

Reading list, annotated, prepared for junior high school students. Subdivisions made according to the wide range of interests of this age group.

New York Public Library. *Books for the Teen-Age.* New York: New York Public Library.

An annual annotated list of books for young people.

Roos, Jean Carolyn. *Patterns in Reading: An Annotated Book List for Young People.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1962.

Annotated book list of items for teen-agers grouped according to interest areas. Within each category, items are arranged in order of difficulty.

Simmons, John S., and Rosenblum, Helen O'Hara. *The Reading Improvement Handbook.* Oshkosh, Wisconsin: Reading Improvement, 1965.

An excellent listing of professional books, classroom materials, reading devices, and other materials for helping to improve the reading skills of students.

Spache, George D. *Good Reading for Poor Readers.* Rev. ed. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Co., 1964.

Recognizing the need to put the right book in the hands of the right student, this book attempts to give specific help in satisfying interest needs and reading difficulty needs in supplying books for the reluctant reader.

Strang, Ruth, *et al. Gateways to Readable Books.* 4th ed. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1966.

Annotated list of books in many interest areas, graded according to difficulty and chosen to help students who have reading difficulties.

Walker, Elinor. *Book Bait.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1957.

Annotated list of about 100 adult books popular with teen-agers.

H. W. Wilson Company. *Children's Catalog.* 11th ed.

New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1966.

Annotated catalog, with annual supplements, listing books in fiction and in all areas of non-fiction. Reading levels indicated.

H. W. Wilson Company. *Junior High School Library Catalog*. Edited by Rachel Shor and Estelle A. Fidell. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1965.

Selected, annotated listing of books suggested in supplying a balanced book collection for junior high school students. Annual supplements keep it contemporary.

H. W. Wilson Company. *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1967.

An up-graded, annotated listing of books useful for grades 10-12. Descriptions helpful in choosing materials to satisfy special interest needs of students.

APPENDIX I

Periodicals Reviewing Non-Book Media for Reading Instruction

	Programmed Material	Telecourses	Cost Annually	Frequency	Films	Filmstrips	Recordings	Tapes	Transparency Masters	Level
ASFA NOTES. American Science Film Assoc., Washington, D. C. 20010			Apply	Irr.	✓					S
AUDIOVISUAL INSTRUCTION. DAVI. National Ed. Assoc., Washington, D. C. 20036			6.00	Mo.		✓	✓			E,J,S
AV COMMUNICATION REVIEW. DAVI. National Ed. Assoc., Washington, D. C. 20036			6.00	Mo.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	E,J,S
BALANCE SHEET. Southwestern Publishing Co., 5101 Madison Road, Cincinnati, Ohio 45227			Free	10 Mo.	✓	✓				S
BOOKLIST AND SUBSCRIPTION BOOKS BULLETIN. American Library Association Chicago, Illinois 60611			8.00	Bi-wkly. Sept.-July	✓					E,J,S
BUSINESS SCREEN MAGAZINE. Bus. Screen Mags., Inc., Chicago, Illinois 60626			3.00	8 per year	✓	✓	✓			S
CLEARING HOUSE. Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, New Jersey 07666			5.00	Mo. for 9 Mo.	✓	✓	✓			J,S
CONSUMER BULLETIN. Consumers Research, Inc., Washington, D. C.			5.00	Mo.			✓			S
CONSUMER REPORTS. Consumer Union of U. S., Inc., Mount Vernon, New York 10550			6.00	Mo.			✓			S
EDUCATIONAL SCREEN AND AV GUIDE. Trade Periodicals Inc., 434 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 60605			4.00	Mo.	✓	✓	✓			E,J,S
ELEMENTARY ENGLISH. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 61821			7.00	8 per year	✓	✓	✓			E

	Programmed Material	Telecourses	Cost Annually	Frequency	Films	Filmstrips	Recordings	Tapes	Transparency Masters	Level
EFLA BULLETIN. Educational Film Library Assoc., New York, N. Y. 10019			5.00 for members	Mo.	✓	✓	✓			E,J,S
ENGLISH JOURNAL. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 61821			7.00	9 per year	✓	✓	✓			H
FILM NEWS. Film News Co., 250 West 57th St., New York, N. Y. 10019			6.00	Bi-Mo.	✓	✓	✓			E,J,S
HORN BOOK MAGAZINE. Horn Book, Inc., 585 Boylston St., Boston, Mass. 02116			6.00	6 per year			✓			E
HIGH FIDELITY. High Fidelity, 7274 Publishing House, Great Barrington, Mass. 01262			7.00	Mo.			✓			
INDUSTRIAL ARTS AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. Bruce Publishing Co., North Broadway, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53201			4.00	10 per year	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	E,J,S
INSTRUCTOR. The Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, New York 14437			7.00	10 per year	✓	✓	✓			E
INSTRUMENTALIST. Instrumentalist Company, 1418 Lake St., Evanston, Ill. 60201			6.00	11 per year	✓					J,S
JOURNAL OF BUSINESS EDUCATION. 15 S. Franklin Street, Wilkes-Barre, Pa. 18701			5.00	8 per year	✓	✓				S
LIBRARY JOURNAL. R. R. Bowker Co., 1180 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N. Y.			10.00	Bi-wkly. Sept.-July		✓	✓			E,J,H
MEDIA AND METHODS. Media and Methods Institute, Inc., 124 East 40th Street, New York, N. Y. 10016			3.00	9 per year	✓	✓	✓	✓		J,H
NATION'S SCHOOLS. McGraw-Hill Publications, 1050 Merchandise Mart, Chicago, Illinois 60654			25.00	Mo.	✓	✓				H

NCSCT NEWS. National Center for School and College Television, Box A, Bloomington, Indiana	✓	Apply	Quarterly					
NSPI JOURNAL. National Society for Programmed Instruction, Trinity Univ., 715 Stadium Dr., San Antonio, Texas 78212	✓	7.50	10 per year					
PTA MAGAZINE. PTA Magazine, 700 N. Rush Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611		2.00	10 Mo.	✓				E,J,S
SATURDAY REVIEW. Saturday Review, Inc., 380 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10017		8.00	wkly.	✓		✓		S
SCHOLASTIC TEACHER. Senior Scholastic, 50 West 44th St., New York, N. Y. 10031		5.00	wkly. 9 Mo.	✓	✓			J,H
SCHOOL MUSICIAN. The School Musician, 4 East Clinton St., Joliet, Ill., 60431		4.00	10 per year	✓	✓	✓		
SCIENCE TEACHER. The National Science Teachers Assoc., 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C. 20036		10.00	9 per year	✓	✓			E,J,H
SOCIAL EDUCATION. National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C. 20036		7.00	8 per year	✓	✓	✓		J,H
SOCIAL STUDIES. The Social Studies, 112 S. New Broadway, Brooklawn, N. J. 08030		5.00	7 per year	✓	✓	✓		E,J,S
TAPE RECORDING. Eastern News Distributors, Inc., 155 W. 15th St., New York		3.00	Bi-Mo.				✓	
TODAY'S EDUCATION. National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036		10.00	9 per year	✓	✓		✓	E,J,S
SCIENCE AND CHILDREN. National Science Teachers Assoc., 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036		4.00	8 per year	✓				E,J,S

APPENDIX J

Addresses of Professional Organizations and Publications

Association For Supervision and Curriculum Development
1201 Sixteenth Street NW
Washington, D. C. 20036

Education Leadership
1201 Sixteenth Street NW
Washington, D. C. 20036

Elementary English
National Council of Teachers of English
508 S. Sixth Street
Champaign, Illinois 61820

English Highlights
Scott, Foresman and Company
3145 Piedmont Road, NE
Atlanta, Georgia 39305

Department of Reading Teachers and Supervisors
The South Carolina Education Association
421 Zimalcrest Drive
Columbia, South Carolina 29210

The English Journal
National Council of Teachers of English
508 S. Sixth Street
Champaign, Illinois 61820

International Reading Association
Six Tyre Street
Newark, Delaware 19711

Journal of Communication
Allen Press, Inc.
Lawrence, Kansas 66044

Journal of Reading
International Reading Association
Six Tyre Street
Newark, Delaware 19711

Journal of Reading Behavior
National Reading Conference
School of Education
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia 30601

National Reading Conference
School of Education
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia 30601

National Society For the Study of Communication
R. Wayne Pace, Executive Secretary
Department of Speech
University of Montana
Missoula, Montana 59801

Reading Improvement
Box 125
Oshkosh, Wisconsin 54901

Reading Newsreport
P. O. Box 8036
Washington, D. C. 20024

APPENDIX K

Sources for Readability Formulas

Dale-Chall Formula
Dale, Edgar, and Chall, Jeanne S. "A Formula for Predicting Readability." *Educational Research Bulletin,* 27 (February 17, 1948), 37-54.

Flesch Formula
Flesch, R. F. "A New Readability Yardstick." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 32 (1948), 221-233.

Fry Graph of Readability
Fry, Edward. "A Readability Formula That Saves Time." *Journal of Reading,* II (April, 1968), 513-516 and 575-578.

Gunning Readability Formula
Lauback, Frank C., and Lauback, Robert S. *Toward World Literacy.* Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1960, 216-217.

Lorge Formula
Lorge, Irving. "Predicting Reading Difficulty of Selections for Children." *Elementary English Review,* XVI (October, 1939), 229-233.

Reading-Ease Calculator
Science Research Associates, Inc. *Reading-Ease Calculator.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1950.

APPENDIX L

Films for In-Service Programs

The State Department of Education Audio-Visual Library has a number of teacher education films for in-service programs in reading. These are available by direct request to the Audio-Visual Library.

Included among films especially designed for secondary teachers is the *Syracuse University Series on Secondary Reading.* Intended as a whole to present the basis for a comprehensive in-service program for secondary teachers of English, reading, and other subject areas, the films were developed in cooperation with the Jamesville-Dewitt School District in New York and should be viewed sequentially. The ten films demonstrate the organization of secondary school reading programs, stress flexible approaches adaptable to many schools and classes, suggest ways that all secondary teachers can develop subject-related reading skills as a part of their regular instruction, and contain ideas for improving the use of the school library. The films take a strong stand for developmental teaching and question overemphasis on the use of mechanical devices for reading skills improvement. The series is supplemented by *A Guide to an In-Service Course in Teaching Reading in Secondary Schools,* worktext material which describes how to use the films as the core of an in-service program.

Titles and viewing time for each film are as follows:

TITLES	*Time*
"Organizing the Reading Program"	(22 minutes)
"Analyzing Reading Achievement"	(20 minutes)
"The Handicapped Reader"	(21 minutes)
"Vocabulary Development"	(19 minutes)
"Developing Comprehension Skills"	(12 minutes)
"Reading to Remember"	(20-22 minutes)
"The Library and the Reading Program"	(19 minutes)
"Developing Skills for Reading Literature"	(13 minutes)
"Efficient Reading"	(11 minutes)
"Report from the Reading Coordinator"	(13 minutes)

APPENDIX M

A Selected List of Professional Aids in Secondary Reading

Austin, Mary; Bush, Clifford; and Huebner, Mildred H. *Reading Evaluation: Appraisal Techniques for School and Classroom.* New York: Ronald Press, 1961.

An excellent guide for appraising progress in reading and for implementing an evaluation of the total school reading program, from beginning reading through Grade 9.

Bamman, Henry A.; Hogan, Ursula; and Green, Charles E. *Reading Instruction in The Secondary School.* New York: David McKay, 1961.

Discusses the teaching of reading in the major content areas and gives suggestions for the improvement of reading skills in these content areas. Includes sections on developmental and remedial programs. Provides an extensive listing of materials for students and teachers.

Barbe, Walter B. *Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1961.

Comprehensive description of an individualized reading program. Includes sections useful to all teachers: skills check-lists, selecting reading materials for students, and determining reading levels of students.

Blair, Glenn M. *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools.* New York: Macmillan Company, 1956.

Major part of this book considers specific diagnostic and corrective procedures in reading and related language skills programs.

Bond, Guy, and Bond, Eva. *Developmental Reading in High School.* New York: Macmillan Company, 1946.

Entire source directed toward some aspect of the secondary reading program; particular emphasis placed upon organization and procedures of developmental and remedial phases.

Bond, Guy L., and Tinker, Miles A. *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.

An extremely useful handbook for the teacher. Provides detailed information on diagnostic and remedial procedures. Includes extensive lists of tests, materials, and aids for the reading program.

Bullock, Harrison. *Helping the Non-Reading Pupil*

in the Secondary School. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.

Contains case materials and suggestions presented to help teachers understand the non-reading pupil and ways to work more effectively with him. Specific discussion of how high school staff members may teach reading and adapt reading tasks to meet individual needs.

Carrillo, Lawrence. *Reading Institute Extension Service, Grades 7-12.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965.

A series of eight units of materials which provide information on testing, organizing reading programs, instructional materials, reading interests, gifted and retarded readers, and evaluation of reading programs.

Cleary, Florence D. *Blueprints for Better Reading; School Programs for Promoting Skill and Interest in Reading.* New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1957.

An "idea book" for teachers and librarians. Role of the librarian in the reading program explained. Suggestions for the evaluation and selection of instructional materials.

Dawson, Mildred A., ed. *Developing High School Reading Programs.* Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1967.

A collection of articles reprinted from publications of the International Reading Association. Sections include: Nature of a Developmental Reading Program, Initiating a High School Reading Program, Organization of a Reading Program, The Reading Curriculum, Procedures and Techniques, and Corrective and Remedial Aspects.

Dawson, Mildred A., and Bamman, Henry A. *Fundamentals of Basic Reading Instruction.* 2nd ed. New York: David McKay Company, 1963.

Revised book which gives a concrete objective presentation of all reading methods. Careful attention is given to the findings of research and to procedures most effective in the classroom. Special attention is given to the skills of word analysis, of comprehension and interpretation, and of study in books. Excellent for the beginning teacher of reading.

DeBoer, John J., and Dallman, Martha. *The Teaching of Reading.* Rev. ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964.

Clearly written text on methods for classroom instruction in the various skills areas. A good source of classroom activities and good explanation of sequential developmental skills.

Dechant, Emerald V. *Improving the Teaching of Reading.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1964.

Valuable reference for classroom teacher. Detailed sections on phonetic analysis and phonics skills, developing a meaningful vocabulary, and advancing comprehension skills. Extensive section on materials for teaching.

Deighton, Lee C. *Vocabulary Development in the Classroom.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.

Provides practical approaches to the teaching of vocabulary. The author questions the use of context clues and word analysis methods for vocabulary development. He proposes the study of word parts with fixed, invariant meanings and an English baseword method.

Dolch, Edward W. *Methods in Reading.* Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Co., 1955.

The sections on classroom diagnosis and plans for high school reading programs are of special interest to secondary school personnel. Emphasis is on principles and methods of teaching reading.

Early, Margaret J., ed. *Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools.* (*Perspectives in Reading,* No. 2). Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1964.

Careful treatment of ways to organize a secondary reading program and practical suggestions for teaching reading skills.

Elkins, Deborah. *Reading Improvement in the Junior High School.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.

Practical and detailed suggestions for teaching below-par readers are included. Emphasizes individualized approaches.

Fay, Leo C. *Reading in the High School.* (*What Research Says to the Teacher Series,* No. 11). Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1956.

Overview of the secondary reading situation as derived from selected survey of literature and research.

Gray, William S., ed *Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas* ("Supplementary Educational Monographs," No. 76). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952.

Conference proceedings which focus attention on both theory and practical techniques secondary teachers can follow for teaching reading in all subject-matter areas.

Gray, William S. *On Their Own In Reading.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1960.

A detailed description of a program for teaching word analysis skills through three stages of progress.

Gunn M. Agnella, *et al. What We Know About High School Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1958.

Contains excellent articles on teaching reading in English classes, successful secondary reading programs, promising practices, and instructional materials.

Hafner, Lawrence E. *Improving Reading in Secondary Schools: Selected Readings*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1967.

A collection of articles on the important facets of teaching reading in the secondary schools. Selections include research studies, reviews of research, critical surveys, explanations of teaching methods and processes, and reports of worthwhile teaching practices.

Harris, Albert J. *How to Increase Reading Ability; A Guide to Developmental and Remedial Methods*. 4th ed. New York: David McKay Company, 1961.

Practical, idea-filled text for the beginning teacher and useful reference for the experienced teacher. Includes annotated lists of tests and graded list of books for remedial reading.

Haugh, Oscar C., ed. *Teaching Reading in the High School* (*Kansas Studies in Education*, 10:1). Lawrence, Kansas: School of Education, University of Kansas, 1960.

Lists in detail skills which may be taught and methods which might be used to teach the skills of reading in high school English, mathematics, social studies, science, and industrial arts.

Heilman, Arthur W. *Phonics in Proper Perspective*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1961.

Explores the purposes and limitations of phonics instruction as it relates to the teaching of reading. Provides a rationale for concrete practices in teaching reading.

Herber, Harold L., ed. *Developing Study Skills in Secondary Schools* (*Perspectives in Reading*, No. 4). Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1965.

A book which covers the major areas in study skills and is based on sound principles. Provides practical suggestions for teachers on the how as well as the why of teaching study skills.

Hildreth, Gertrude. *Teaching Reading; A Guide to Basic Principles and Modern Practices*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1958.

Comprehensive treatment of development reading from the beginning stages through the junior high school grades.

Jewett, Arno. *Improving Reading in the Junior High School* (Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Bulletin No. 10). Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1957.

A bulletin of practical ideas for teaching reading at the junior high school level.

Karlin, Robert. *Teaching Reading in High School*. Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill, 1964.

A practical book including specific suggestions for dealing with a variety of reading situations. Attention is given to skills of word recognition, comprehension, rate, and reading in the content fields.

Marksheffel, Ned D. *Better Reading in the Secondary School*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966.

An outstanding book which deals with the nature of reading, basic principles of secondary reading, procedures and techniques for teaching reading in the subject-matter areas, and teaching study skills.

Metropolitan School Study Council. *Five Steps to Reading Success in Science, Social Studies and Mathematics*. Rev. ed. New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960.

Outlines suggested procedures for incorporating the teaching of essential reading skills into subject-matter instruction.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Development In and Through Reading*. Sixtieth Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961.

Chapters VIII and XVII give practical help for teaching reading in the junior and senior high schools.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Reading in the High School and College*. Forty-seventh Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948.

Contains timely articles which provide valuable assistance to teachers in high schools and colleges for developing and implementing effective reading programs.

New Jersey Secondary Teachers Association. *All Teachers Can Teach Reading*. Plainfield, New Jersey: New Jersey Secondary Teachers Association, 1951.

Makes specific suggestions for developing, strengthening, and refining reading skills within the framework of subject-matter instruction. Especially helpful for use in in-service education programs involving the entire staff.

Newton, J. Roy. *Reading in Your School.* New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1960.

Includes the roles of administrators and teachers in the whole-school reading program. Chapters V, VII-IX, XI-XII especially helpful for teaching secondary reading.

Penty, Ruth C. *Reading Ability and High School Drop-outs.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.

Data concerning serious reading problems at secondary level and challenge of meeting them; reading program and procedures employed in study in Part Four.

Robinson, H. Alan, and Rauch, Sidney, J., eds. *Corrective Reading in the High School Classroom* (*Perspectives in Reading,* No. 6). Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1966.

A collection of articles on promising diagnostic and corrective procedures useful at the secondary level. Includes ideas for teaching reading in literature, social studies, science, and mathematics.

Robinson, Helen M., ed. *Sequential Development of Reading Abilities* ("Supplemental Educational Monographs," No. 90). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

Methods and materials suggested for sequential skills development in the classroom. Skills considered include: word perception, comprehension, critical reading, oral reading, and reading in the content areas.

Russell, David H. *Children Learn to Read.* 2nd ed. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1961.

A treatment of basic reading instruction from the beginning stages to grade eight. Major part of text covers developmental phases of the reading program.

Shepherd, David L. *Effective Reading in Science.* Evanston, Illinois: Harper and Row, 1960.

A handbook which includes a list of related reading skills, a technique for diagnosis of reading proficiency in science, and descriptions of teaching methods.

Shepherd, David L. *Effective Reading in the Social Studies.* Evanston, Illinois: Harper & Row, 1960.

A handbook which includes aspects of evaluation and instruction of reading skills used in studying social studies materials.

Simmons, John S., and Rosenblum, Helen O'Hara. *The Reading Improvement Handbook.* Oshkosh, Wisconsin: Reading Improvement, 1965.

A detailed guide to methods and materials for the improvement of reading at the secondary and college levels. Includes lists of reading texts and workbooks, reading tests, reading devices, programmed materials, films and filmstrips, recordings and tapes, games, and reading reference materials.

Simpson, Elizabeth. *Helping High School Students Read Better.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954.

Contains eight "examples of high school reading programs in action" in Part II.

Smith, Henry P., and Dechant, Emerald V. *Psychology in Teaching Reading.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Company, 1961.

Gives an understanding of the psychological bases of the reading process. Considers learning principles, basic reading skills, diagnosis and remediation and reading in the content areas. Useful summaries follow each chapter.

Smith, Nila B. *Reading Instruction for Today's Children.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Company, 1963.

Presents summaries of significant research in reading, discusses recent thinking in regard to various aspects of reading, and provides a wealth of suggestions for classroom use. Most of the book deals with the major growth areas of skill development.

South Carolina Education Association. *The Teaching of High School Reading.* Columbia, South Carolina: The South Carolina Education Association, 1965.

A guide to organizing all-school and compromise reading programs, including developmental and remedial classes. Extensive section on teaching reading in the content fields. An excellent resource for in-service education programs.

Spache, George D. *Good Reading for Poor Readers.* Rev. ed. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1962.

Useful guide for the classroom teacher. Includes the following kinds of lists: trade books useful with poor readers; adapted and simplified materials; textbooks, workbooks, and games; magazines and newspapers; series books; book clubs; indexes and reading lists.

Spache, George D. *Toward Better Reading.* Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Co., 1963.

Critical examination of techniques and approaches in reading instruction. Chapters III and XVI especially helpful in teaching secondary reading.

Stewart, L. Jane; Heller, Frieda M.; and Alberty, Elsie J. *Improving Reading in the Junior High*

School. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

Report of cooperative work done by a core teacher and a school librarian to develop a reading program. Reading interests, reading and study skills instruction, and the use of varied materials are considered.

Strang, Ruth. *Diagnostic Teaching of Reading.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

Describes varied diagnostic procedures as a continuing means to more efficient learning.

Strang, Ruth, and Bracken, Dorothy K. *Making Better Readers.* Boston: D. C. Heath Company, 1957.

An introduction to reading instruction, with suggestions for applications in the content fields. Discusses responsibilities of the whole school staff.

Strang, Ruth; McCullough, Constance M.; and Traxler, Arthur E. *The Improvement of Reading,* 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961.

A comprehensive view of the situation in reading, with emphasis on schoolwide programs at all levels from first grade to twelfth grade and beyond. Gives specific descriptions of programs and procedures for teaching reading. Excellent sections on reading in subject-matter areas.

Umans, Shelley. *Designs for Reading Programs.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

Defines and describes procedures for developmental and remedial programs as components of a schoolwide reading program.

Umans, Shelley. *New Trends in Reading Instruction.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.

Explains several new trends and innovations in reading instruction and suggests methods whereby school personnel—from the superintendent to classroom teacher—might go about applying such techniques. Includes sample teaching materials which may be adapted to various situations.

Viox, Ruth G. *Evaluating Reading and Study Skills in the Secondary Classroom. (Reading Aids Series).* Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1968.

This booklet enables the teacher to make reading an integral part of each subject discipline. The emphasis is on the *what* and *how* of evaluating reading performance in the various subject-matter areas.

Weiss, M. Jerry, ed. *Reading in the Secondary Schools.* New York: Odyssey Press, 1961.

Selected readings from various authorities, including materials on a philosophy for reading instruction, organization of reading programs, motivation, reading skills, reading in the content fields, and examples of secondary reading programs. Contains helpful bibliography of books, journals, articles, special publications, booklists, and suggested instructional materials. Section on reading in the content areas is outstanding.

Woolf, Maurice D., and Woolf, Jeanne A. *Remedial Reading: Teaching and Treatment.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957.

Selected portions of this volume appropriate particularly to treatment of corrective and remedial problems at the secondary level.

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